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ABSTRACT

This issue of "Educational Comment" is concerned with curriculum courses in pre- or in-service programs for teachers, considered from the perspective of the instructor of these courses, and with general problems of curriculum research and personnel. It contains seven papers originally presented at the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Conference in 1969: "Sources of Knowledge for the Curriculum Field," "The Concept of Valid Content," "The Curriculum Worker: A View of His Tasks and His Training," "Curriculum Problems Facing the Schools: Now and in the Future," "A Survey of Curriculum Courses and Content," and "Communicating Curriculum: An Analysis of Current Texts." (RT)

EDUCATIONAL COMMENT/1970

A Search for Valid Content for Curriculum Courses

Edited by

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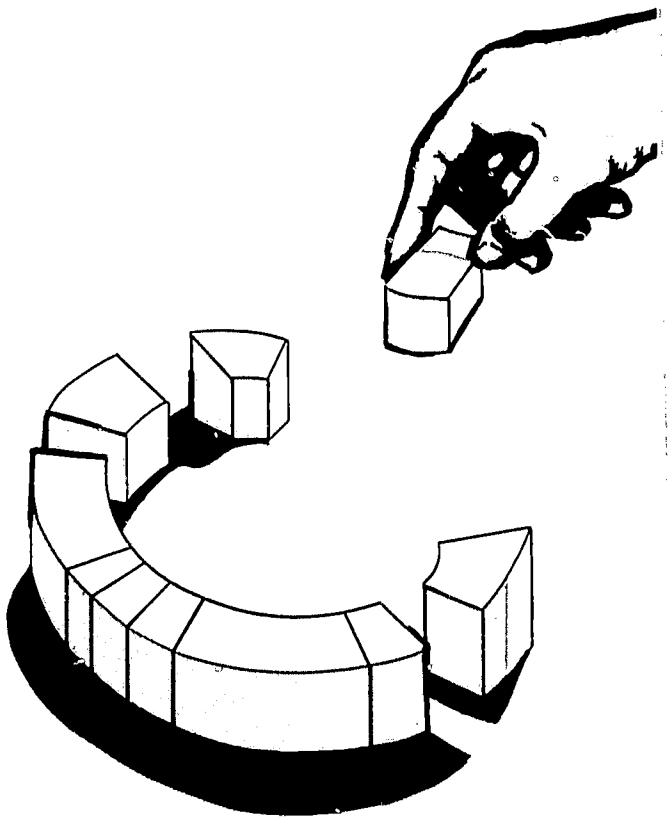

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FOREWORD

Educational Comment is published by the College of Education at The University of Toledo. Its purpose is to advance an understanding of topics of current significance in professional education.

This issue of **Educational Comment** is concerned with the study of curriculum in pre-service or in-service programs for educators. The topic is approached from the perspective of the instructor of these courses. The title of this booklet, **A Search for Valid Content for Curriculum Courses,** suggests that the question of what educators need to know about curriculum has not been settled once and for all but must be continuously re-examined.

Given the current upheaval in public school curriculum, educators are being called upon to put forth programs that are new and more effective than those presently in operation. If they are to resolve the underlying problem of pupils' declining interest in learning and their rejection of much of what is now being taught, educators must have at their disposal considerable knowledge of curriculum problems and of alternative solutions. They must be able creatively to design and conduct learning opportunities that will be willingly sought by pupils and confronted by them with considerable satisfaction.

What to teach these educators that will prepare them to meet this challenge is certainly a most difficult question. No one can claim to have the final word on this matter. Yet, I have been struck by the glimpses of insight offered by the writers included in this issue of **Educational Comment.** I am sure these ideas will be helpful to instructors of curriculum courses if they will lift them from the scholarly context in which they are here presented and use them as resources in designing their own instruction.

The writers originally presented their analyses and suggestions at an ASCD Pre-Conference Seminar in Chicago on March 15-16, 1969, at the request of Professor Edmund C. Short of The University of Toledo. It is with considerable satisfaction that we are able to bring these papers to a wider audience. To the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and to the consultants themselves, go our thanks for the opportunity afforded **Educational Comment** to perform this publishing service.

George E. Dickson
Dean of the College of Education
The University of Toledo

INTRODUCTION

In attempting **A Search for Valid Content for Curriculum Courses,** the assumption guiding the identification of various aspects of the over-all topic was this — that knowledge sources are already available in a number of places for the task of selecting content. There is the knowledge generated by curriculum scholars themselves, as surveyed in the article by Professor Short. In addition, the assistance of philosophical scholarship can be drawn upon. A sample of such work is provided by Professor Soltis. Historical scholarship of the kind supplied by Professor Kliebard is another type of source. Professor Mann deals in his paper with knowledge from empirical and theoretical sources. Knowledge of the existential situation in curricular practice is a source not to be neglected, as Professor Fisher's article confirms. Experience in tooling up for instruction in curriculum is also a source of knowledge upon which to draw in attempting to determine what to teach. Professor Wootton surveys and analyzes nationwide course offerings in curriculum, and Professor Roberts examines textbooks used.

With the aid of such a variety of knowledge, choice of valid content may not seem so difficult. However, having all such knowledge at hand is no guarantee that choices of what content to teach will be wisely made and that desired ends will be served. This, of course, depends upon application of principles of curriculum planning in the particular situation. No attention has been given by the writers to this process since any standard curriculum textbook provides about all that is known at the present time about making curriculum decisions.

This publication does not purport to be a full report of the seminar, cited in the foreword, at which the seven contributors spoke. The two-day meeting included a number of opportunities for its participants besides listening and responding to the speakers. One thing, however, that was clearly indicated by the instructors who attended and who teach the curriculum component of professional education, was their desire for more opportunity to discuss professional and scholarly problems with their colleagues. A continuing and enlarging dialogue seemed essential to them. One means of extending the opportunity for consultation of this kind is through the publication of the papers that were given at the seminar. By reading and responding to the ideas which the consultants presented, others may become a part of the dialogue begun at that meeting. The papers are pub-

lished here, without elaboration or response, as a contribution to this on-going exchange of ideas. The consultants did not wish their remarks to be considered authoritative answers to practical, instructional problems. They offered the benefit of their scholarly study and personal judgments as stimulators for further discussion and criticism. Readers of this issue of **Educational Comment** should likewise use them to provoke their own thought and to sharpen their own view of their instructional task in curriculum.

Credit is due for assistance in editing to Professor Ronald Maertens, who also assisted in conducting the seminar, to Professor Robert Sandin, to Professor Richard W. Saxe, and to Mr. Thomas H. Durnford, who also designed this publication, all of The University of Toledo.

***Edmund C. Short**, Editor*
November, 1969

CURRICULUM SCHOLARSHIP

Sources of Knowledge for the Curriculum Field*

What is the most relevant, up-to-date, and fruitful content that can be taught in curriculum courses? Anyone who teaches in this area faces this question continually and is compelled to assert some answer to it. The quality of the answer given depends upon how well the instructor is acquainted with the knowledge available in the field. If he is not fully cognizant of the ideas related to his teaching area nor completely aware of the relative significance of various concepts in it, he will not likely determine the best answer to the question. Even if he is as knowledgeable as he can be about the scholarship in the curriculum field, he may utilize criteria that are not fully adequate in selecting content appropriate to the specific purposes of his courses. Judgments as to relevance and appeal of the content for teaching purposes are not easily come by without explicit, reliable criteria.

This paper focuses upon the first of these problems — the matter of discovering the extent and character of available knowledge about curriculum for purposes of strengthening the instructor's grasp of the possible content that he might draw upon in teaching.

THE STATE OF THE FIELD

What is the state of knowledge in the curriculum field? The first thing that can be noted is that it is diffuse and fragmentary. The range of ideas generated about curriculum is quite extensive and varied, but at the same time the work of sorting and relating curriculum concepts of diverse kinds has only partially been done. Assessing the worth of some of these ideas and constructing a systematic view of the field has been attempted very infrequently.

Another feature of the curriculum field that is readily recognizable is the existence of enormous gaps in certain kinds of knowledge. Knowledge gained through well designed curriculum research is not as extensive as one might suppose. Advances in conceptualizing the field and in developing precise

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terminology have not been as fruitful as might be expected from the generous amount of attention given to these matters by scholars. Even recording and interpreting the thought and practice of earlier curriculum workers has resulted in relatively minor additions to the pool of curriculum knowledge because not much quality scholarship of this kind has been done. There is great need to fill the many gaps in the knowledge in this field.

One might assume that one could turn to certain literature in this field where the fundamental knowledge has been collected, synthesized, and recorded for easy access. Such is not the case. Those books and documents which attempt to pull together knowledge about curriculum are usually, each in its own way, somewhat limited in scope or in depth. Knowledge available at present is still widely scattered in many kinds of literature, much of which is unknown or unread by a majority of those requiring knowledge about curriculum. Those writings prepared for specialized instructional purposes display for the most part similar neglect of relevant primary source material and/or do not intend to deal with the full range of topics that might be associated with the field. What is needed is a good map of the available knowledge in the field of curriculum together with carefully compiled references to all the pertinent documents in which this knowledge is recorded. We do not now have such a map in curriculum, and some scholars are rather skeptical that one will ever be drawn up.

At the present stage of development of scholarship in the field of curriculum, it may be stated in general that curriculum does not appear to be a highly disciplined field of inquiry. Its concerns are not clearly identified and systematically studied. The variety of work already done that may be related to curriculum study remains scattered or unnoticed. The scholarly inquiry that could be done is only partially perceived. And the task of synthesizing what is known has not been undertaken in any satisfactory way up to now.

I have intentionally rushed over this assessment of the state of knowledge in curriculum without giving specific details. It is not my purpose to pinpoint the exact conditions that prevail or to explore the avenues of improved scholarship in curriculum although some of us in our own research might endeavor to make some contributions here. Rather, it is my purpose to look at the current state of knowledge in the field in order to be-

come better acquainted with what curriculum knowledge there is that could be utilized in instruction about curriculum. I assume that we all need some widening of our understanding in this respect. I am also assuming that there is some knowledge called curriculum, some product of curriculum scholarship, that is more or less circumscribed by its relevance to the necessity for and the practice of curriculum-making in the schools. Finally, I am assuming that there is some degree of order and merit to this knowledge, that some elements of it are more valid than others with respect to its efficacy in affecting practice in desired directions, and that these elements should receive priority in instruction about curriculum.

THE EXISTING KNOWLEDGE

With these as basic assumptions and purposes, the first question upon examining the available knowledge in curriculum is this: What qualifies as the product of curriculum scholarship? There is no need to be very precise in this matter when the domain and methodology of inquiry in the field is so far from being firmly established. Almost any related information that has been generated is worthy of consideration. There is, however, a useful distinction to be recognized between the kind of thought and study carried on in an operational curriculum setting where the task is to face issues, make decisions, and take action day-by-day on matters related to the conduct of an educational program in a school or school system, and that scholarship which is carried on apart from the demands of practical affairs, where the task is to abstract from the thought and experiences of curriculum workers those things which may have wider applicability, subject these data to careful analysis and theoretical formulation, and establish valid knowledge that is of more general significance than the particular facts, thoughts, or decisions from particular situations. No matter how important the first type of on-the-spot thinking and doing of a scholarly sort may be for the schools, it is only this second major type of scholarship that can yield anything capable of being communicated over time and space. Thought and experience perish if they are not verbalized and recorded for others to study. The products of this second type of curriculum scholarship are therefore to be found in documents and other literature of the field in the form of either immediate reports of curriculum activity or more digested and processed knowledge.

It is to this array of recorded material that we must turn in an effort to gain a larger view of the available knowledge in the curriculum field. The type and kinds of knowledge are confusing in their variety, and the merit of much of it lies beyond our present ability or desire to judge. Nevertheless, it is possible to order some of this knowledge by classifying it by source. I wish to propose a series of categories which is related to activities of various kinds of personnel involved in curriculum scholarship. Certain items from the literature of curriculum will be mentioned to illustrate the type of knowledge that has been generated within each category. By attending to the whole series of categories and the examples given within each, one may be able to conceive more fully the scope and variety of knowledge available within the field of curriculum. In addition, this approach to curriculum knowledge through classification of the literature by source and type may stimulate the identification of other curriculum writings from similar sources that can and should be categorized together and which may contain pertinent knowledge not yet recognized or perhaps overlooked. The intent of the scheme being presented is to be suggestive, not exhaustive.

The six charts that accompany this article illustrate thirty-four types of scholarly source material generated by curriculum scholarship. I have identified the personnel doing such scholarship in six categories, namely, 1) teachers, curriculum directors and supervisors, and administrators; 2) curriculum researchers and theorists; 3) curriculum developers; 4) curriculum evaluators; 5) critics and philosophers of curriculum, and 6) professional curriculum scholars. This classification is not meant to imply that persons work solely in one category; such clearly is not always the case. But it does suggest that at any one time persons conduct curriculum scholarship of a kind most nearly identifiable with one of these six rather different roles. Reference in each chart to the list of curriculum activities carried on by the personnel listed should assist in understanding what kind of activities are associated with a particular category of scholarship. My purpose has been to show variety and kinds of items and to distinguish them in some way. Someone else surveying curriculum knowledge might have categorized and listed items differently.

Next, turning to the list of specific kinds of scholarly materials produced in each category, one should notice that the products parallel the activities listed in each chart. The types of

curriculum literature are numbered so that the bibliographic illustrations that correspond to each type can be easily keyed. The references given are limited in quantity since they merely serve to tie one or more examples to a particular **type** of document so the reader may get an idea of what the label might cover. In some instances, there may exist hundreds of similar references that would fit the label covering that type of scholarly material. In other cases, there may be little if any scholarship available.

In summary, this survey may suggest to some instructors how extensive the scope of material is with which they are not yet acquainted. Others may see the need for condensing the knowledge in any one of a number of the thirty-four categories to manageable proportions so that endless study of primary sources is not necessary. Still others may lament the lack of solid knowledge that has resulted from certain types of scholarly work in particular domains. They may take up the task of trying to fill in these gaps in our knowledge. All of us who instruct in curriculum, especially in over-all treatments of the knowledge of the field, will no doubt need to put together in some conceptually respectable form the knowledge from all available dimensions so that we may have an accurate picture from which to select valid content for curriculum courses.

FIRST CATEGORY

Personnel Involved

Teachers, curriculum directors and supervisors, administrators

Curriculum Activity

Local curriculum planning
Program determination
Implementation

Type of Scholarly Source Material Produced

Curriculum plans[1]
Curriculum guides[2]
Curriculum policies[3]
Associated materials and evaluative devices[4]
Organizational procedures followed in the curriculum development process[5]

1. **Fountain Valley School District Education Plans.** Fountain Valley, California: The School District, n.d. 31 pp.

   "Instructional Program Grade Charts" to accompany **Course of Study for Elementary Schools** — 1964 revision — Los Angeles City Schools, Publication No. 375.

2. **Mathematics — 9th Year.** Curriculum Bulletin, 1966-67 Series, No. 4. New York: New York City Board of Education, 1966. 304 pp.

   Sex Education: Grades K-6. Louisville, Kentucky: Louisville Public Schools, 1968. 184 pp.

3. **Curriculum Goals and Rationale.** Elk Grove, Illinois: Elk Grove Community Consolidated School District, 1968. 42 pp.

   It's Your Future: General Requirements and Courses of Study. Toledo, Ohio: Toledo Public Schools, 1968. 8 pp.

   Glenn A. Rich, **1968 Minimum Standards for Ohio High Schools.** Columbus: Department of Education, State of Ohio, 1968. 77 pp.

4. Martin A. Budish, **Microprojector Experiments for the Elementary Schools.** Littleton, Colorado: The author, 5975 So. Milwaukee Way, 1964. 162 pp.

   Vincent and Carol Presno, **People and Their Social Actions: Instructions, Procedures, Development, Levels A and B.** Brentwood, New York: Brentwood Public Schools, 1965. 118 pp. and 100 pp.

5. Harriet B. Baldwin, "A Conceptual System for Planning and Managing the Instructional Program of the Montgomery County Public Schools." Rockville, Maryland: Montgomery County Public Schools, 1966. 33 pp.

   Fred P. Barnes, "The Illinois Curriculum Program," pp. 113-140 in Harold J. McNally, A. Harry Passow, and Associates, **Improving the Quality of Public School Programs: Approaches to Curriculum Development.** New York: Teachers College Press, 1960.

   Lloid B. Jones, "Curriculum Development in the Denver Public Schools," pp. 190-216, in Harold J. McNally, A. Harry Passow, and Associates, **Improving the Quality of Public School Programs: Approaches to Curriculum Development.** New York: Teachers College Press, 1960.

SECOND CATEGORY

Personnel Involved

Curriculum researchers and theorists

Curriculum Activity

Observing and recording practices in First Category Activity
Developing and testing theories pertaining thereto

Type of Scholarly Source Material Produced

Descriptions of curriculum practices[6]
Reports of research on aspects of curriculum[7]
Theoretical formulations[8]
Validation studies[9]

6. Lillian Glogan and Murray Fessel, **The Nongraded Primary School.** West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1967. 294 pp.

   John H. Lounsbury and Jean V. Marani, **The Junior High School We Saw: One Day in the Eighth Grade.** Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1964. 78 pp.

7. David H. Feldman, "A Study of a Fixed Sequence of Skill and Concept Acquisition Requisite to Performance of a Common School Task: Map Drawing." Paper read February 7, 1969, at American Educational Research Association, Los Angeles.

   Robert W. Heath, "Curriculum, Cognition, and Educational Measurement," **Educational and Psychological Measurement,** 24 (Summer, 1964) 239-53.

   Vynce A. Hines and William M. Alexander, "High School Self-Evaluation and Curriculum Changes." Paper read February 10, 1968, at American Education Research Association, Chicago.

8. Thomas L. Faix, "Structural-Functional Analysis as a Conceptual System for Curriculum Theory and Research: A Theoretical Study." Paper read February, 1966, at American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

   John I. Goodlad and Maurice N. Richter, Jr., **The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction.** Report of CRP Project No. 454, 1966. ERIC Document ED 010 064, 69 pp. Bethesda, Maryland: National Cash Register Company, ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

   Mauritz Johnson, Jr., "Definitions and Models in Curriculum Theory," **Educational Theory,** 17 (April, 1967), 127-140.

9. John O. Bolvin, "The Use of Field Data for Improving IPI Materials and Procedures." Paper read February 8, 1969, at American Educational Research Association, Los Angeles.

   Martin I. Taft and Arnold Reisman, **Towards Better Curricula Through Computer Selected Sequences of Subject Matter.** ERIC Document ED 012 106, 27 pp. Bethesda, Maryland: ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

   Elizabeth C. Wilson, "A Model for Action," pp. 154-193 in **Rational Planning in Curriculum and Instruction: Eight Essays.** Washington, D.C.: Center for Study of Instruction, National Education Association, 1967.

THIRD CATEGORY

Personnel Involved

Curriculum developers

Curriculum Activity

- Projecting curricular program options
- Synthesizing valued aims and substantive knowledge within some theoretical model of curriculum
- Constructing the components of such programs in practical terms

Type of Scholarly Source Material Produced

- Comprehensive curriculum proposals[10]
- Programs recommended by special curriculum reform projects[11]
- Experimental programs developed through regional educational laboratories or laboratory schools[12]

10. Harry S. Broudy, B. Othanel Smith, and Joe R. Burnett, **Democracy and Excellence in American Secondary Education.** Chicago: Rand McNally, 1964. 302 pp.

    Mario D. Fantini and Gerald Weinstein, **The Disadvantaged: Challenge to Education.** New York: Harper & Row, 1968. 455 pp.

    Philip H. Phenix, **Realms of Meaning: A Philosophy of the Curriculum for General Education.** New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964. 391 pp.

    B. O. Smith with Saul B. Cohen and Arthur Pearl, **Teachers for the Real World.** Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969. 185 pp.

11. Commission on Science Education, **Science — A Process Approach.** Washington, D.C.: American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1965.

    School Health Education Study, **Health Education: A Conceptual Approach to Curriculum Design.** St. Paul, Minnesota: 3M Education Press, 1967. 141 pp.

12. **Program for Americans of Latin Origins.** Austin, Texas: Southwestern Regional Educational Laboratory.

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FOURTH CATEGORY

Personnel Involved

Curriculum evaluators

Curriculum Activity

- Examining effectiveness or worth of curricula in operation
- Gathering data for comparison of outcomes with objectives sought
- Making judgments concerning capability of programs to meet certain relative or absolute standards

Type of Scholarly Source Material Produced

- Evaluation reports[13]
- Techniques and methodologies for conducting program evaluation[14]
- Various standards of worth produced in connection with curriculum evaluation[15]

13. James N. Jacobs, Lenore D. Wirthlin, and Charles B. Miller, "A Follow-Up Evaluation of the Frostig Visual-Perceptual Training Program," **Educational Leadership,** 26 (November, 1968), 169-175.

    "Second and Third Year Evaluation Reports," pp. 39-182 in **An Evaluation Model and Its Application: Second Report.** Washington, D.C.: American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1968.

14. Garlie A. Forehand, "The Role of the Evaluator in Curriculum Research," **Journal of Educational Measurement,** 3 (Fall, 1966), 199-204.

    Robert E. Stake, "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation," **Teachers College Record,** 68 (April, 1967), 523-540.

    Henry H. Walbesser and Heather Carter, "Some Methodological Considerations of Curriculum Evaluation Research," **Educational Leadership,** 26 (October, 1968), 53-64.

15. **A Suggested Checklist for Assessing a Science Program.** USOE Document OE-29034A, January, 1964.

    W. William Stevens and Irving Morrissett, "A System for Analyzing Social Science Curricula," **EPIC Forum,** 1 (December, 1967 and January, 1968).

FIFTH CATEGORY

Personnel Involved

Critics and philosophers of curriculum

Curriculum Activity

Reviewing the activities of all personnel in the curriculum field and the products (written or not) of their activities

Using the methods of the various branches of philosophy in assessing the recorded thought produced

Type of Scholarly Source Material Produced

Analyses of procedures followed[16]

Plans actualized[17]

Proposals made[18]

Research and evaluation carried on[19]

Theoretical constructs conceived[20]

Standards asserted[21]

Other scholarly knowledge developed[22]

16. William M. Alexander, "The Acceleration of Curriculum Change," pp. 341-358 in Richard I. Miller (ed.), **Perspectives on Educational Change.** New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.

    "Appraising Curriculum Improvement Programs," pp. 291-321 in Harold J. McNally, A. Harry Passow, and Associates, **Improving the Quality of Public School Programs.** New York: Teachers College Press, 1960.

    Gordon N. Mackenzie, "Curriculum Change: Participants, Power, and Processes," pp. 399-424 in Matthew B. Miles (ed.), **Innovation in Education.** New York: Teachers College Press, 1964.

17. Elliot W. Eisner, "Analysis of Title III Projects in the Arts," pp. 269-276 in **Notes and Working Papers Concerning the Administration of Programs under Title III, ESEA.** Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April, 1967.

18. Evans Clinchy, "The New Curricula," pp. 220-240 in Ronald Gross and Judith Murphy (eds.), **The Revolution in the Schools.** New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964.

    Robert B. Davis, **The Changing Curriculum: Mathematics.** Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1967.

    John I. Goodlad and others, **The Changing School Curriculum.** New York: Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1966, pp. 91-114.

19. David A. Abramson, "Curriculum Research and Evaluation," **Review of Educational Research,** 36 (June, 1966), 388-395.

    Lee J. Cronbach, "The Psychological Background for Curriculum Experimentation," pp. 19-35 in Paul C. Rosenbloom (ed.), **Modern Viewpoints in the Curriculum.** New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964.

    Jack R. Frymier, "National Assessment," pp. 249-259 in Fred T. Wilhelms (ed.), **Evaluation as Feedback and Guide.** 1967 ASCD Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1967.

    James B. Macdonald and James D. Raths, "Curriculum Research: Problems, Techniques, and Prospects," **Review of Educational Research,** 33 (June, 1963), 322-329.

20. David L. Elliott and Arthur W. Foshay, "Chart or Charter: Recent Delevopments in Educational Discourse," **Review of Educational Research,** 33 (June, 1963), 233-244.

Herbert M. Kliebard, "Structure of the Disciplines as an Educational Slogan," **Teachers College Record,** 66 (April, 1965), 598-603.

Paul R. Klohr, "Problems in Curriculum Theory Development," **Theory into Practice,** 6 (October, 1967), 200-203.

21. W. William Stevens, Jr., "Curriculum Standards: Some Further Considerations," **Curriculum Theory Network,** No. 2 (Winter, 1968-69), 30-34.

22. Dwayne Huebner, "Curriculum as a Field of Study," pp. 94-112 in Helen F. Robison (ed.), **Precedents and Promises in the Curriculum Field.** New York: Teachers College Press, 1966.

Jonas F. Soltis, "The Disciplines and Subject Matter," **An Introduction to the Analysis of Educational Concepts.** Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1968, pp. 17-34.

SIXTH CATEGORY

Personnel Involved

Professional curriculum scholars

Curriculum Activity

- Collecting, categorizing, analyzing, assessing, and disseminating the total literature of the curriculum field
- Conducting inquiry into the nature of the field
- Establishing and advancing the systematic knowledge in all dimensions of curriculum scholarship
- Identifying knowledge outside the field that is related to curriculum
- Determining practical uses of curriculum knowledge
- Preparing appropriate instructional sequences and material for introducing novices to curriculum knowledge

Type of Scholarly Source Material Produced

- Bibliographies[23]
- Summaries[24]
- Reviews of the curriculum literature[25]
- Definitions of the field and recommended methods of inquiry[26]
- Taxonomies of curriculum knowledge[27]
- Dissertations on aspects of curriculum scholarship[28]
- State-of-the-field reports[29]
- Historical treatises[30]
- Rationales for various points of view within the field[31]
- Criteria for selective uses of the knowledge in the field[32]
- Courses of study[33]
- Textbooks[34]

CURRICULUM SCHOLARSHIP

23. Charles A. Blackman, "Bibliography for Curriculum Courses and Seminars," College of Education, Michigan State University.

    Harry S. Broudy and others, **Philosophy of Education: An Organization of Topics and Selected Sources.** Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1967. pp. 144-174.

    Corplan Associates, Chicago, **A Bibliography of Published and Unpublished Vocational and Technical Education Literature,** June, 1966. ERIC Document ED 018 531, 225 pp. Bethesda, Maryland: ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

    Curriculum Materials, 1969. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1969. 62 pp.

24. Robert Emans, "A Proposed Conceptual Framework for Curriculum Development," **The Journal of Educational Research,** 59 (March, 1966), 327-332.

    John I. Goodlad and others, **The Changing School Curriculum.** New York: Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1966.

    J. Glenn Gray, "The Curriculum," **The Promise of Wisdom.** Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1968. pp. 195-228.

    Mauritz Johnson, Jr., "Definitions and Models in Curriculum Theory," **Educational Theory,** 17 (April, 1967), 127-140.

    Nolan C. Kearney and Walter W. Cook, "Curriculum," pp. 358-364 in **Encyclopedia of Educational Research,** 3rd Edition, 1960.

    Harry V. Scott, "A Primer of Curriculum Theory: Descriptive Theory," **Educational Theory,** 18 (Spring, 1968), pp. 118-124.

    Glenys G. Unruh (ed.), **New Curriculum Developments.** Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965.

25. Julian Roberts, "Curriculum Development and Experimentation," **Review of Educational Research,** 36 (June, 1966), 343-352.

    Julian Roberts, "Three Plus One: An Essay Review," **Educational Forum,** 33 (November, 1968), 103-107.

26. James K. Duncan and Jack R. Frymier, "Explorations in the Systematic Study of Curriculum," **Theory into Practice,** 6 (October, 1967), 180-199.

    James B. Macdonald, "An Example of Disciplined Curriculum Thinking," **Theory into Practice,** 6 (October, 1967), 166-171.

    John S. Mann, "Curriculum Criticism," **Curriculum Theory Network,** No. 2 (Winter, 1968-69), 2-14.

    Mauritz Johnson, Jr., "Definition and Models in Curriculum Theory," **Educational Theory,** 17 (April, 1967), 127-140.

27. Harry S. Broudy and others, "Curriculum Design and Validation," **Philosophy of Education: An Organization of Topics and Selected Sources.** Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1967. pp. 139-174.

    Edmund C. Short and George D. Marconnit (eds.), **Contemporary Thought on Public School Curriculum.** Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Book Company, 1968.

28. Carol M. Fisher, **A Personal Approach to Curriculum Theory.** Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1966.

    Robert M. McClure, **Procedures, Processes, and Products in Curriculum Development.** Ed. D. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1965.

    Richard C. Phillips, **An Historical Study of the Concept Curriculum.** Ph. D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1962.

    Martin Siegel, **Curriculum Change Factors Which Affected the Development of Three Selected Changes in a New Jersey School System.** Ed. D. dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1966.

29. John I. Goodlad, "Curriculum: A Janus Look," **Teachers College Record,** 79 (November, 1968), 95-107.

John I. Goodlad, "The Curriculum," pp. 32-58 in **The Changing American School.** Sixty-fifth Yearbook of NSSE, Part II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1966.

Kenneth D. Wann, "The Curriculum Field Today," pp. 12-26 in Helen F. Robison (ed.), **Precedents and Promises in the Curriculum Field.** New York: Teachers College Press, 1966.

30. Herbert M. Kliebard, "The Field of Curriculum in Retrospect," pp. 69-84 in Paul W. F. Witt (ed.), **Technology and the Curriculum.** New York: Teachers College Press, 1968.

Mary Louise Seguel, **The Curriculum Field: Its Formative Years.** New York: Teachers College Press, 1966.

31. Robert R. Leeper (ed.), **Curriculum Decisions: Social Realities.** Report of 1968 ASCD Conference, Atlantic City. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1968.

J. Stuart Maclure, **Curriculum Innovation in Practice.** Report of Third International Curriculum Conference, Oxford, England, 1968. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1968. 94 pp.

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PHILOSOPHICAL SCHOLARSHIP

The Concept of Valid Content*

When I first was asked to consult with a group of instructors who teach in the field of curriculum, I was most reluctant to accept because of my abysmal lack of knowledge about curricular matters. Even as a philosopher of education, I estimated that at best I had no more than an ordinary PTA member's naive view of curriculum as a structured and serialized program for learning made up of various subjects with specified instructional content. But then, as the theme giving focus to these several papers became clearer in my mind and as I realized that curriculum experts themselves were deeply and genuinely concerned with the problem of finding some sensible ground rules for establishing valid content and effective curricular designs for **their own** field, it occurred to me that I might be no worse off than the experts in terms of my lack of fundamental knowledge about certain aspects of the conceptual basis of the curriculum field.

With that new found courage, and finding myself in good company at the traditional starting place for philosophers (recognition of one's own ignorance about fundamental matters), I decided to try my hand at dealing with what I take to be a central conceptual issue in a "Search for Valid Content for Curriculum Courses." It would seem to me that an understanding of the concept of **valid content** is fundamental; for without some clear idea of what is to count as valid content, a search for it could turn out to be a rather fruitless endeavor.

Now I hope it is clear that there are two legitimate ways to think about valid content for curriculum courses only one of which we can share because of my lack of substantive knowledge about the technical field of curriculum training. On the one hand, and justifiably dominant in the minds of curriculum experts, I expect, is the very important and practical issue of just what constitutes the essential and specifiable content for curriculum courses. In very simple terms, it is to seek an answer to the substantive question, **what** should be taught? On the

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other hand, there is a conceptually prior question about **how** one is to decide what is to be taught, or more technically, what rules or clues or criteria might there be to enable one to distinguish valid content from content which in some sense is not valid. This latter conceptual question is the one to which this paper is addressed.

Therefore, we might do well to begin this venture with a few brief remarks about the nature of conceptual questions themselves; for **how** we ask our initial conceptual question will be important to the kinds of answers we are able to formulate. Now we could begin by asking how we can distinguish valid content from content which is in some sense not valid as I suggested above. But if we do so, then we should note that this way of formulating the question presupposes that our answer lies in some important differences between two things, and that our general strategy would be to seek out the essential characteristics of valid content so that we could effectively separate the two. But it should be clear that this strategy is dictated by the **way** in which we asked our question initially. We assumed a difference and so would then seek to find its grounds. If, however, we had asked the initial question differently in some such form as: how is content to be validated or how do we demonstrate that content is valid, our assumptions and general strategy should indeed be different. For in asking the question in this way, we would seem to be suggesting that there is some process or procedure by which content is **made** valid and our strategy then would be to seek out and illuminate the **process** or the **rules** for validating curricular content.

To see that the way in which we formulate questions can predetermine the major features of our answers is generally important to any form of conceptual inquiry. But to see further that a conceptual question **is a formulation**; that is, it has imbedded in it certain basic assumptions about the very concept we seek to clarify and understand, is to already provide some insight into that concept and thus gives us an important point of departure for conceptual analysis. For if the two questions above seem on the surface at least to ask legitimate kinds of questions about valid content as we generally understand that idea, then minimally we have before us at least two conceptual candidates for the meaning of "valid content" with which we might begin a systematic and analytic exploration. Put another way, to avoid the pitfall of narrowing the direction which our

inquiry might take to one or the other of these seemingly legitimate formulations, we might do better to take neither fork in the road at this time, but rather might proceed more generally to examine both these ways of thinking and talking about the concept of valid content in an attempt to shed some light on our general conceptual problem.

If we begin with the assumption about valid content contained in the first formulation of the conceptual question, namely; that there is something about valid content in and of itself which marks it off from other things, then it would seem to follow that valid content in this sense could be understood to be **independent** of any particular curriculum design. That is, one possible way of thinking of content which is valid in and of itself is to think of it as having its validity grounded in its own nature and not in reference to the curriculum of which it is a part. To put this in the context of curriculum planning, it would suggest that prior to the selection of any particular content for a curriculum we should ascertain what is valid in its own right and thus a legitimate candidate for curriculum content.

I would imagine that this is a fairly standard view which seems to make a fairly sensible demand. In effect, it says that one should not choose anything as curriculum content unless it has validity in and of itself. Thus, for example, one might decide straight off to limit the choice of curriculum content to facts rather than falsities, to supported theories rather than unsubstantiated hypotheses, or to established societal norms rather than idiosyncratic values. Each specific choice, then, could be justified in its own right regardless of the features of the specific curriculum of which they are to become a part.

In effect, this common view of validity is one which demands **independent** justification or warrant for whatever is to be called "valid content" prior to the building of a specific curriculum with such items. And, fortunately, we have offered to us by many fields of scholarly study knowledge for which they provide the warrant for its validity. In science, for instance, anything to be taken as a fact must have the warrant of empirical evidence behind it and in mathematics, it must have some proof offered on its behalf to substantiate it. In fact, these fields not only offer us potential curriculum content, but also a method to ascertain if some specific item is valid in and of itself for we, too, can search out evidence or seek demonstrations for the validity of any item which may be in doubt. Holding this

independent view of validity, then, suggests a general strategy for planning a valid curriculum which demands that valid areas of potential content must first be identified and only then may the selection of specific content for a specific curriculum proceed with the assurance that the curriculum will contain only valid content.

But if we look now at the formulation of the second question which suggested that there is a process of procedure for making things valid, on the surface at least, we find an equally appealing and sensible view. In fact, at first blush it seems that our two "different" assumptions may not be so far apart after all. For in searching for independent grounds for identifying valid content in the way just sketched above, we do seem to be directly concerned with the process or procedures by which things attain their validity. If there were any doubt in our minds about whether a particular fact was in fact a fact, we would seek out evidence to support it (i.e. proceed to try to verify it, to try to validate its status as a fact) before we would be willing to count it as a potential candidate for inclusion in a curriculum made up of this sort of "valid" content. But note, in this instance we would still be concerned with a form of validity which was independent and logically prior to the consideration of a specific curriculum design itself.

Now it is also possible to view this second sense of validity which is suggestive of process or procedure for validating curriculum content from the perspective of being **dependent** upon a particular curriculum design. That is, we might adopt the equally appealing and I presume also fairly standard view that the validity of some particular item of content in a specific curriculum is dependent upon its effectiveness in playing its part in leading up to the desired results, outcome, or objectives of that particular curriculum design. Thus, it seems possible to search for ways to establish workable rules or criteria or procedures for determining if a bit of content is consistent with and essential to the accomplishment of certain curricular objectives and to deem some content valid on these grounds and others not. Valid content in this sense would be "effective" or "efficient" content implying that it derives its validity from its ability to serve its intention as an effective means to some specified end.

I must hasten to point out, however, that these sketchy, preliminary, and by no means settled ideas of validity as inde-

pendent of and dependent upon curriculum design are not necessarily mutually exclusive. It should be obvious that one could adopt the curriculum design strategy implicit in each of these senses in conjunction with one another. In fact, this just might appeal to some as the surest, safest, and most sensible way to proceed for it seems to offer the advantages of both views with neither of their drawbacks. Thus, one might decide first to identify all the potentially valid content available as judged on independent grounds and then select from this set only that particular content which can be validly justified on the grounds that it will be effective in securing the objectives of the particular curriculum being designed.

This may be an appealing, logical and even workable idea, but I hasten to caution the overanxious that one of the first rules of conceptual analysis is to distrust what seems to be your best ideas, especially if they lead to a swift and easy solution to your problems. Concepts are notoriously complex and slippery things and if anything is sure, finding one's way through their labyrinths is never easy. In fact, I must confess that even at this stage in our discussion, I am still not sure if the distinction between dependent and independent validity is valid! (I hope you will excuse the use of that disputed descriptive term!) But even if we were to proceed as if these were valid distinctions, there are still some very interesting conceptual problems inherent in our "easy solution" as sketched above which we should not overlook.

For instance, we might ask if it would be possible to use invalid content in the first sense as valid content in the second. This is not as impossible a suggestion as it might first appear to be. In fact, it seems to me to be quite proper and reasonable to think of using some bit or bits of content which by normal and independent standards of validity would be invalid but which turned out to be quite valid on dependent grounds of being most effective in reaching a particular curriculum objective. For example, I might want to include as content in a science curriculum the invalid geocentric theory of the solar system so that its faults could be made apparent and thereby offer further credence to the currently accepted heliocentric theory which is now considered valid and thoroughly substantiated. I expect it would not be too difficult to multiply such examples in which some content which might fail to meet the independent tests of validity on any ground we chose prior to constructing a curriculum

might very well be validly used in the dependent sense of being an integral part of the curriculum we designed on the grounds that it turned out to be most effective for achieving the intended curriculum objectives.

But this very real possibility raises another problem with respect to combining these two senses of valid content. For it seems equally possible to use only independently valid content in the first sense and to structure it validly in the second sense so that it logically promises to be effective in leading to the curriculum objectives, and yet have students actually come out of such a curriculum experience with what could be judged on the same initial independent grounds as an invalid outcome. Suppose, for example, in a history curriculum one decided to use only those facts which met currently accepted empirical standards of having proper evidence and chose from them those items which were relevant to the history of the Negro in America in order to attain the curriculum objective of dispelling the myth of racial inferiority. These facts might then be structured in the most logically compelling pattern of offering repeated evidence that given the opportunities of freedom, economic equity, and education, many Negroes throughout our history have attained levels of competence equal to any white.

Would this be a guarantee that all students passing through such a curriculum would arrive at that objective, i.e., belief that racial inferiority is a myth? I think there are enough realists among us to agree that this would not necessarily occur in every case or that some may very well arrive at the invalid conclusion that racial inferiority is a fact. If anyone should be most keenly aware of the fact that even the best curriculum ever devised cannot be foolproof and guarantee that all who go through it will attain the intended objectives, you in curriculum planning should be the ones! You can frequently and legitimately lay blame for such failures on poor instructional execution, but in the long run you know as well as I that even with the best plans and best teaching, some students will not respond in the way intended or anticipated.

This is a rather long way around to get at another simple distinction relevant to the consideration of validity in the second sense of being dependent upon the particular curriculum design. It should be clear by now that we have operative in these dis-

cussions of curriculum content as it is related to curriculum objectives two senses of being valid. The first is a function of our judgment about the logical relationships between a specific pattern of chosen content and our intended objectives. If the pattern is logically supportive of its objective and is not logically inconsistent with other of our designed patterns or our other objectives, we could claim validity for that content on the logical grounds of consistency and supportive evidence for the specific pattern. In effect, we are claiming that to the best of our reasoned judgment and knowledge, this particular series of content should produce this particular desired result and hence this content is valid in the sense that it logically promises to be effective.

But we have already seen that even the best laid plans may go awry and that logic does not guide and predict behavior with one hundred percent accuracy. Thus, obviously, there is a second sense by which we might refer to the validity of curriculum content as effective content. This is the pragmatic sense in which we judge after the experience that indeed the objectives were met following a particular curriculum pattern. In the last analysis, of course, this is the only kind of "validity" that really "counts." But to say that valid content is that content which actually produces the desired results is merely to describe what we are after and not how to get there. In fact, viewing valid content solely in this pragmatic way might give license to an inefficient trial and error strategy for curriculum building which I take it most experts would agree is undesirable as a single and dominant strategy for curriculum makers.

But what kind or kinds of more desirable strategy can we derive from these ideas about the concept of valid content which we have examined thus far and how might these various ways of looking at valid content link up with other key curriculum concepts such as "curriculum development" and "curriculum improvement"?

In dealing with valid content in its independent sense, we saw that were this to be our sole criteria for identifying proper content, there would be the danger of so limiting the scope of potential content as to eliminate some things which could prove to be most effective in reaching legitimate curricular objectives. But this need not mean that we should completely abandon or

pay no attention to the independent validity criterion for items chosen for a curriculum. It merely means that if we are to approach the complex task of building a curriculum in a sophisticated and intelligent fashion rather than by way of a too restrictive, simple-minded, or trial and error procedure we should recognize that some of what we might choose as content has a prior claim for its privileged status and almost seems to compel us by its very nature to make it part of the curriculum. In effect, strategically speaking, this concept of independently valid content does provide us with a sound starting place from which we may draw content and set objectives which is better than a less clearly defined amalgam of potential content in which the independent valid-invalid distinction is missing. At least here we would know what we are dealing with and would be able to offer good reasons for selection beyond the simple criterion of independent validity for we would not be blind to the potential good use to which some item which lacks such independent validity might eventually be put.

Since we cannot tell in advance how pragmatically effective our curriculum-patterning will be, we have no recourse (except to embrace pure trial and error) but to use whatever sensible and compelling reasons we can muster to plan a sequence of content consistent with and supportive of our particular objectives. But recognition of the pragmatic sense of valid content should temper our felt "certainty" that each of our carefully planned sequences must work because logically they look as though they should work. Furthermore, we should recognize that the concept of valid content when taken as being dependent upon a specific curriculum design is a relative and functional one. Independent validity of items cannot be our final test, for we must also look to the ways in which items are expected to and do function in a particular curriculum if we are to make full use of the ideas developed here.

In very gross terms, this summary description of the distinctions arrived at in this analysis of valid content could be taken to be descriptive of some general strategies for curriculum development because it seems to isolate and show relationships between elements which seem essential to the construction of a curriculum **de novo.** But obviously, the idea of building a curriculum from the ground up, though perhaps a dominant meaning of the idea of curriculum development, is not the only one. Sometimes we refer to curriculum development when we are

concerned with fleshing out more fully an already constructed curriculum or even when we are more properly concerned with what is also called "curriculum improvement."

If we do have to this point some general ways to talk about valid content as a concept relevant to the task of curriculum development, then what, we may ask, is the relationship of the general strategies and distinctions which we have developed thus far for that more special task identified as curriculum improvement? Certainly it is possible to think of improving a curriculum in many ways such as by adding fundamentally new and different patterns or subjects or objectives to it. But the sense of curriculum improvement which I would like to focus on here is one in which we imply by the very use of the term "curriculum improvement" that an already developed curriculum with specified objectives is in need of improvement because in actual pragmatic operation it has failed to meet our logically derived expectations to the extent we had envisioned in its developmental stage. (Notice that the ideas of pragmatic and logical dependent validity are of considerable assistance here to make clear the basic sense of the idea of curriculum improvement with which we shall specifically be concerned.)

Once again it would seem that some strategies might be derived and grossly described for such a situation by utilizing the ideas which we have developed to talk about valid content and curriculum development. If concerned about the lack of pragmatic effectiveness, we could, of course, just begin all over again developing a new curriculum, or throw out the good with the bad replacing a section of the curriculum with something else — "innovation" I believe it is called, or even just tinker by trial and error with bits and pieces of the curriculum until the results are improved (if ever!). But because we have identified some crucial ideas with respect to the validity of curriculum content, we are in a position to proceed with a bit more sophistication in an attempt to describe a more reasonable strategy for improvement of the curriculum.

Of course, one cannot disregard the many variables which might be at work to limit the effectiveness of a particular curriculum which range from poor teaching to a high percentage of low ability students. But this does not deny the equally real possibility that part or perhaps all of some specific failure to

achieve an objective may be attributed directly to a particular weak or pragmatically ineffective sequence of content in the curriculum design itself. A systematic examination of the various patterns and sequences of content directly related to the troublesome objective could isolate the trouble spot and indicate just where redevelopment or replacement of that sequence is called for. Then a new sequence could be designed, inserted into the curriculum, and once again pragmatically tested (perhaps even with the use of a control group using the old sequence) to see if the expected improvement in more adequately meeting the objective had indeed actually been accomplished.

Obviously, what this simple strategy amounts to is to suggest a more controlled and scientific view of one aspect of curriculum work called curriculum improvement and I am sure that for experts in curriculum matters, this is not a new idea. What I hope is of interest, however, is the explicit conceptual link up between the ideas of valid content which we dealt with conceptually and the equally basic ideas of curriculum development and curriculum improvement viewed as strategies.

At this point, I am sure that I have already said too much about something of which I know too little — curriculum and curriculum making. In this brief excursion into the concept of valid content, I have only tried to isolate some ideas which seemed to me to have direct bearing on the way in which one approaches the general task of designing or improving a curriculum. Obviously, I have had little to say directly to the substantive problem of finding some means to select appropriate content so that one may construct effective courses in the curriculum field itself. Perhaps, however, the distinctions between dependent and independent validity, logical and pragmatic validity, and the conceptual discussions of curriculum development and improvement strategies dealt with in this paper may be of service in two ways; first, in providing a conceptual framework and set of guidelines for thinking about this substantive problem; and second, in suggesting that somewhere in the content selection for curriculum courses it might be desirable to include materials which would be of assistance in making the basic conceptual elements of the field clearer and more explicit.

As I intimated at the outset of this paper, I firmly believe that clarity and understanding on the conceptual level cannot help but enhance the possibility of success of the substantive

and practical level. I hope this paper has been of some assistance in the former task because I know it has had nothing to offer the latter. And for that I apologize for subjecting the practically minded of you to my obtuse conceptual ramblings through ideas you probably already had grasped in much clearer form before you confronted this paper and became confused.

HISTORICAL SCHOLARSHIP

Persistent Curriculum Issues in Historical Perspective*

In a recent series of essays on the role of the past in the development of philosophical ideas, John Herman Randall reviewed the ways in which philosophers continually reconstruct and criticize their past as an integral part of their work.[1] This involvement with the past need not be construed as formal historical writing, but rather as a kind of dialogue across generations about the basic concerns of the field. By engaging in such a dialogue, present-day practitioners are at least aware of the ideas and the forces that have helped shape their field and their thinking.

The values associated with viewing complex questions from an historical vantage point are not always clear cut or easy to state. Frequently, however, such an approach does serve to provide some sense of continuity and direction, and, for me at least, offers a broad perspective on the state of the curriculum field generally and on certain curriculum issues in particular.

The State of the Field

There is some justification for dating the emergence of the curriculum field as a self-conscious field of specialization from around the year 1918. That is the year when several influential works in the curriculum field are published including Franklin Bobbitt's **The Curriculum**[2] and Clarence Kingsley's **Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.**[3] It is followed in the 1920's by a period of feverish activity directed toward curriculum reform. The tenor of the times was a melange of Post World War I nationalism, a drive for the "Americanization" of immigrants, a faith in the methods of science, and a concern for the uplift of the masses. To a large extent the curriculum field seems to have been shaped by this atmosphere and a reaction against what was believed to be a kind of education that was static, irrelevant to modern life, and nonfunctional. The reformers proposed a school program that was perpetually innovative, directly related to the ongoing world of affairs, and supremely utilitarian in orientation. The curriculum reformers almost totally rejected

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previously established procedures and practices, which they generally associated with the discredited doctrine of mental discipline. To this day, the picture we have of the once vital and exciting theory of mental discipline is by and large the caricature that was drawn in the early days of the curriculum reform movement. The essentially metaphorical use of a term like "faculties of the mind" is taken literally, and positions are ascribed to the mental disciplinarians which were at best products of a kind of intellectual underworld (e.g. phrenology). This tendency to denigrate the past in favor of an enlightened and inspired present has had several important consequences for the development of the curriculum field.

An Ahistorical Posture. The most immediate consequence of the impulse to reject the past is the simple lack of knowledge that prevails even among our most articulate spokesmen as to the basic facts in recent curriculum history. Certain myths are perpetuated (like the myth about mental discipline) because they tend to support or at least make plausible certain ideological convictions that are being promoted. One widespread instance is that of the speaker or writer who wishes to proclaim the inappropriateness of such "college-entrance" subjects as algebra or foreign languages as being too academically rigorous for the present high school population. Frequently, one segment of the school population is specified such as the disadvantaged or the "non-college bound" or the low socio-economic classes. To support his argument, he will usually cite the "fact" that high school students around the turn of the century (or the first decade or two after that) were overwhelmingly college bound and that since the high school now serves a diverse population it must correspondingly adapt its curriculum. The evidence of course is to the contrary — that probably a higher percentage of high school graduates now go on to college than anytime in the period since 1900 and probably before. All this is also quite apart from the question of whether probable destination is an appropriate justification for teaching a subject like algebra to all, some, or none of the high school population.

Another possible consequence of the ahistorical posture in the field of curriculum is the singular lack of dialogue that exists between present day practitioners in the field and their professional forebears. It is not surprising, for example, to find, university graduate programs, sometimes leading to a Ph.D. in curriculum, where the student has no opportunity to study the

ideas of the men who shaped and gave direction to the field of curriculum. This is not to say, of course, that the writings of men like Bobbitt and Charters and Snedden represent the supreme wisdom in the field of curriculum. We may want to study the work of these men only to rid ourselves of their unseen influence. It is as if advanced graduate students in sociology would study only Parsons and Merton and knew nothing of Weber and Durkheim. Generally speaking, the foremost scholars in other fields of study continually engage in a kind of dialogue with their ancestral counterparts rejecting, revising, or refining the early formulations and concepts. No such cumulative approach to the content of the curriculum field has yet emerged, and this has had a telling effect on the relative permanence of curriculum thinking. Issues tend to arise **de novo,** usually in the form of a bandwagon and then quickly disappear in a cloud of dust. Sometimes these issues have their counterparts in an earlier period, but this is rarely recognized. The field in general is characterized by an uncritical propensity for novelty and change rather than funded knowledge or a dialogue across generations.

The Ameliorative Orientation. Apart from its generally ahistorical posture, the curriculum field is also characterized by an overwhelmingly ameliorative orientation. This is not to imply that some ultimate good in terms of classroom practices and procedures is an inappropriate direction or outcome of curriculum study and research. An ameliorative component is clearly present in many fields of study. In the curriculum field, however, the urge to do good is so immediate, so direct, and so overwhelming that there has been virtually no toleration of the kind of long range research that has little immediate value to practitioners in the field, but which may in the long run contribute significantly to our basic knowledge and understanding.

There seem to be at least two reasons for this predominantly ameliorative orientation. One is that the origin of the curriculum field is associated with a reform movement, one that took the form essentially of a drive toward a supremely functional curriculum largely oriented toward socially useful knowledge and skills. The curriculum field, therefore, is at least in one sense a movement, a drive to topple old gods and to replace them with new ones. Until quite recently, one's acceptance into the curriculum field was practically contingent on holding certain convictions. One had to uphold democratic interaction, abhor lectures, speak deprecatingly of "subject matter specialists,"

and use functional criteria in judging the value of school subjects. The major research in the field, such as the Eight-Year Study, are basically efforts to establish the primacy of the forces of good over the forces of wickedness and reaction. There were, of course, bitter and savagely fought battles within the movement over the past fifty years or so; but these tended to be fought within a rather limited area. They are much like the internecine battles that take place between political or religious groups that are only a hair apart in doctrine. It is also true that there has been over the past ten or twelve years a kind of frontal attack on many of the most hallowed tenets of the curriculum field, but these attacks were launched essentially from outside the professional curriculum community. Insofar as the curriculum field is a reform movement rather than a field of study, it is seriously threatened with disintegration by these outside forces. Movements — drives for a special cause — rise to prominence, then fade and die; fields of study adapt, change and grow.

Apart from its origins in a reform movement, there is one other possible explanation for the strongly ameliorative stance that pervades the curriculum field: it rests with the huge constituency of teachers, school administrators, and supervisors who exert continual pressure on those who conduct research for answers to such practical questions as, how can I improve my teaching, which are the best programs, and how can I recognize and reward a good teacher. These are perfectly natural questions, but they are probably unanswerable in their present form; at any rate, our simplistic approach to them has not been rewarding. The huge body of research on teacher effectiveness is a case in point. Much of it, dating back to the early decades in this century, is based on the assumption that certain specific acts or behaviors in the classroom could be correlated with certain criteria of success in teaching, usually a supervisor's positive rating or a score on an achievement test. These specific behaviors ranged from asking "good" questions to placing one's thumbs in one's suspenders. Research of this kind has been inconclusive or contradictory. Part of the problem, I think, is the value-laden orientation. Immediate emphasis on "good" and "bad" practices frequently leads to circular propositions which take the form of "good teachers do good things in the classroom." In a larger sense, the problem revolves around the effort to develop a kind of technology of teaching leading to the performance of certain presumably effective behaviors in the ab-

sence of any fundamental understanding or conception of what kind of activity teaching is. B. O. Smith's dictum in 1956 that "Knowledge of what teaching is in fact is prerequisite to its systematic improvement"[4] combined with his subsequent research as well as the research of others in this vein has served to modify somewhat the earlier simplistic approach in favor of a more sophisticated research tradition. Nevertheless, the pressure remains understandably strong for practical answers to immediately practical questions.

The Lack of Definition. Along with the questions of the ahistorical posture and the ameliorative orientation, there is probably one other issue relating to the state of the field of curriculum which deserves attention. It is the paucity of ordered conceptions of what the curriculum field is and its relationships to cognate fields. This question is perhaps so broad as to incorporate the other two but deserves some attention on its own. In part, this problem involves a clarification of the chaotic state of curriculum terminology, a problem alluded to by many leaders in the curriculum field since the 1920's. A variety of widely differing programs, for example, have been proposed and implemented under the names of the activity curriculum or the experience curriculum.[5] The approach to the problem, however, need not take the form of simply attempting to legislate the use of certain terms in certain ways. It involves the broader and more difficult task of critically analyzing the concepts we use as a way of clarifying the nature of our enterprise. Fortunately, some momentum seems to be building in this area as a result of the efforts of analytically oriented philosophers of education. There is little evidence, however, that the considerable insight that Peters, for example, has shown on the question of curricular objectives has permeated curriculum thinking and practice in this country. A typically rigid and pervasive "party line" has developed with respect to the specification of curricular objectives which brooks very little opposition.

The question of definition in the curriculum field extends also to the question of where the boundaries of the curriculum field leave off and where others begin. As one example, one might consider the use of the term **experiences** as the basic unit element in the curriculum. Franklin Bobbitt in the first book ever written on the curriculum defined the curriculum as a "series of experiences which children and youth must have by way of attaining . . . objectives"[6] and various definitions of cur-

riculum have used the term experiences ever since. Consider, for example, the following definitions of curriculum:

> "a series of experiences as a result of which the child's personality is continuously modified."[7]
>
> "the whole of interacting forces of the total environment provided for pupils by the school and the pupil's experiences in that environment."[8]
>
> "a sequence of potential experiences . . . set up in the school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting."[9]
>
> "the experiences that a learner has under the guidance of the school."[10]

Definitions such as these clearly extend the notion of curriculum beyond the commonsense notion of the subjects of study, and yet where it ends is not quite clear. Is the definition of curriculum preactive or interactive?[11] Is it to be found in the action system involving a teacher, pupils, and a classroom? If so, then the notion of teaching is somehow subsumed in the definition of curriculum, a conception which violates at least my sense of how these terms are used in ordinary language. If, on the other hand, curriculum and teaching are different concepts, then how are they different and how can we conceive of the relationship that exists between them? In general, the notion of an experience is to me so intimate, so vague and so subjective a concept as to be untenable as a unit element in the curriculum.

Persistent Issues

To my knowledge, controversies exist in all fields of study on the nature of the field and on what constitutes the basic components and orientation of a discipline. In the curriculum field, however, this controversy is viewed from an unusually narrow perspective, one where the issues are not well defined. I have tried to clarify these issues in my own mind at least by reviewing the development of certain central issues in the field over the past half century or so. I shall try to outline briefly two of these: the role of curricular objectives and the question of curriculum differentiation.

The Role of Curricular Objectives. The broad question of what education is for or what is a good education is one that pervades all of the field of education and is not particularly distinctive to the curriculum field. The narrower question, how-

ever, of the role of objectives in the planning and development of school programs is a central one in the field and has been since the field emerged as an identifiable entity. Our basic model of a curriculum specialist, Franklin Bobbitt, for example, was one of the principal early advocates of the notion that the first task of curriculum development is the stipulation in minute detail of numerous, specific, and "particularized" objectives. He argued that this task is central; what follows are the essentially pedestrian tasks of providing the learning "experiences" that will achieve the objectives and then undertaking some evaluation in terms of whether those objectives have been achieved or not. As a matter of fact, Bobbit devoted a major portion of his most influential book, **How to Make a Curriculum** to the listing of numerous objectives.[12] Included are such objectives as, "The ability to use general principles in analyzing and considering economic, political, and other social problems,"[13] "Ability to entertain one's friends, and to respond to entertainment by one's friends,"[14] and "Ability to sharpen, adjust, clean, lubricate, replace worn or broken parts, and otherwise keep household and garden tools and appliances in good order and good working condition."[15] These objectives are perhaps lacking in the pseudo precision of "Given a list of 35 chemical elements, the learner must be able to recall and write the valences of at least 30,"[16] but the principle is essentially the same. About all we have done on the question of the role of objectives in curriculum development since Bobbitt's day is, through some verbal flim-flam, convert Bobbitt's "ability to" into what are called behavioral or operational terms and to enshrine the whole process into what is known as the "Tyler rationale."

The essence of the "Tyler rationale" is not, it seems to me, the curriculum planning steps that are frequently associated with it, but the embodiment of a production model of how the process of teaching and learning proceeds. In applying the model, we are asked in effect to state certain design specifications for how we want the learner to behave, and then we attempt to arrive at the most efficient methods for producing that product quickly and, I suppose, cheaply. A curricular objective in this sense is only a way of stating what someone will do or behave like once we get through with him. We are even urged to state objectives in the most precise terms in order to make it easier to tell whether we have succeeded or not. Despite the significant efforts of a few curriculum theorists, such as Huebner and Macdonald, major alternatives to the "design specifica-

tion" view of the role of curricular objectives have not emerged. As a matter of fact, the production model along with efficiency as the criterion of success has achieved new prominence and popularity under the influence of the burgeoning educational technology.

Of some importance, however, is the existence of a modern philosophical tradition in education running from Dewey to R. S. Peters which explicitly rejects such a view of objectives. " . . . Ends, objectives of conduct," Dewey says, "are those foreseen consequences which influence present deliberation and which finally bring it to rest by furnishing an adequate stimulus to overt action. Consequently ends arise and function within action. They are not, as current theories too often imply, things lying beyond activity at which the latter is directed. They are not strictly speaking ends or termini of action at all. They are terminals of deliberation, and so turning points in activity."[17] Putting the idea of an aim in its natural context of shooting or throwing, Dewey says, "Men do not shoot because targets exist, but they set up targets in order that throwing and shooting may be more effective and significant."[18] In other words, hitting a bullseye is not an objective for which the activity of shooting was designed; the idea of a target emerges out of the activity of shooting and adds a dimension to it. If one were to accept this view, it would be hard to imagine how one could set up objectives in advance of teaching. R. S. Peters puts the matter even more strongly: "Education . . . can have no ends beyond itself. Its value derives from principles and standards implicit in it. To be educated is not to have arrived at a destination; it is to travel with a different view. What is required is not feverish preparation for something that lies ahead, but to work with precision, passion and taste at worth-while things that lie to hand."[19] To my way of thinking, such a view places the emphasis where it belongs — on the quality and worthwhileness of the educational activity itself. In the curriculum field, however, we have not been able to rid ourselves of the persistent notion that teaching and learning are somehow unpleasant or at least neutral activities to be disposed of quickly and efficiently on the way to achieving an appropriate external objective. That notion is imbedded in the formulations of Bobbitt and other early curriculum leaders as well as the most sophisticated systems analysis approach today.

Curriculum Differentiation. Another persistent issue that had its origins more or less in the early beginnings of the cur-

riculum field is the question of differentiated curricula for different identifiable groups in the school population. This is perhaps where the impact of the measurement movement following World War I was most strongly felt. The heart of the question lies not so much in the obvious fact of individual differences or in our ability to measure those differences but in the curricular implications we attach to those differences. Does, for example, a difference in I.Q. of ten or twenty or thirty points dictate a different set of school subjects or at least radically modified content in those subjects? Or, to use a different criterion, is the program of studies controlled by one's probable destination insofar as it can be determined? In other words, to what extent is the design of the curriculum in elementary and secondary schools determined by our guess as to whether someone is to become a lawyer, a salesman, or a taxidermist?

The long-standing emphasis on such differentiation in the field of curriculum seems to be at least in part a reflection of a utilitarian framework for legitimizing school subjects. Put in the context of the Cardinal Principles Report, for example, subjects find their justification in their contributions to the external aims of health, vocation, worthy use of leisure, and so on. Once we accept that framework, it becomes normal and natural to want to know what actual and practical activities men will perform, determine what knowledge and skills one will need to perform them, and then to label both our students and our subjects. It is presently quite possible, for example, to refer to both a student and a school subject such as physics as being "college-entrance." In the school setting, such a process becomes a vast bureaucratic machinery for labeling, stamping, and tracking students into different curriculum patterns. While some subjects find their obvious justification in terms of future or present utility, problems arise when the utilitarian criterion is applied to all school subjects and made the basis of curriculum differentiation.

The alternatives to the utilitarian justification of school subjects and their subsequent orientation toward different groups of students are even less clear-cut than in the case of curricular objectives. Part of the problem is that utility is probably the only really public criterion we have. As such, we are frequently reduced to explaining to parents or to students that we study French so that we can some day order from a French menu or that geometry is useful in determining square footage

when fertilizing a suburban lawn. As a last resort, we can always say French and geometry are "college entrance" subjects.

One alternative seems to lie in the tradition of a liberal education especially as it is creatively redefined by Paul Hirst. As Hirst describes it,

> Knowledge . . . must never be thought of merely as vast bodies of tested symbolic expressions. These are only the public aspects of the ways in which human experience has come to have shape. They are significant because they are themselves the objective elements round which the development of mind has taken place. To acquire knowledge is to become aware of experience as structured, organized and made meaningful in some quite specific way, and the varieties of human knowledge constitute the highly developed forms in which man has found this possible.[20]

For such a conception to be implemented, at least some portion of the curriculum would have to be protected from the vicissitudes of the utilitarian justification. As Krug expressed this position in explicating his concept of intellectual play as a deliberate function of the schools, "To foster intellect as play will not require in the schools the neglect of intelligence for practical ends, but it will mean an end to the demand that subjects be evaluated **only** in those terms."[21] Perhaps some day the conventional labels we now apply to school subjects such as "college-entrance" and "non college-entrance" will be replaced by the "playful" and the "useful" with students of widely different abilities, different destinations, and different social classes tasting freely of both. Strangely enough, this brings us back to Bobbitt. Of all the early curriculum leaders, he explicitly tried to make the case for "play-level" activities as opposed to the "work-level," "the serious duties of life."[22] Even those activities which bear no direct relationship to practical affairs, he argued, should be pursued as part of the curriculum. Learning things because of curiosity without reference to the use of knowledge," he said, "is really one of the largest normal activities of man."[23] This aspect of his curriculum theory, however, has been largely forgotten.

Conclusion

Perhaps the most obvious conclusion that could be drawn from viewing curriculum issues in the perspective of the past fifty years or so is that our basic framework and our intellectual

horizons have been severely limited. The production model and the utilitarian criterion applied to all school subjects as they have evolved over the past half century still constitute our fundamental frame of reference. The coming of modern technology, rather than freeing us from the earlier formulations, has served instead only to reinforce them or restrict them further. The task of the next fifty years in the curriculum field is essentially one of developing alternatives to the mode of thinking and the limited framework that has so clearly dominated our first fifty years.

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EMPIRICAL AND THEORETICAL SCHOLARSHIP

The Curriculum Worker: A View of His Tasks and His Training*

INTRODUCTION

The search for valid course content in curriculum is at least in part a search for a valid description of the curriculum-worker's tasks. For clearly what he should be offered depends upon what he is preparing himself to do. My paper focuses primarily upon an unorthodox conception of the curriculum worker's role, and secondarily upon the implications of this conception for his graduate school experience. By curriculum worker I mean some one who will practice curriculum; a consultant, supervisor, administrator, or teacher who is involved in making curriculum decisions. While all of these people may well also conduct research and build theory, it is their role as the "doers" of curriculum that I have especially in mind.

I want to begin by giving you some idea about how I stand on the tedious issue of defining "curriculum." There are as many definitions of curriculum as there are students of curriculum; I do not propose to put forth still another, but I do want to discuss the word to some extent, so that you know something about what kinds of things I see the curriculum worker working with.

There are a vast number of things that go on in a school, and in unimaginably complex ways each of these things seems related to each other thing. People who work in schools — principals, teachers, supervisors, consultants — are people who have accepted responsibility for controlling not very precisely defined sets of these things that go on. Faced with such enormous variety and complexity, the person who has accepted responsibility for control begins with the scientific act that George Kelley calls "construing."[1] That is, he builds hypothetical patterns and superimposes them upon the realm of his concern to see if they disclose pattern or orderliness in that realm. Now I think that the various ways of defining curriculum, instruction, teaching, and learning, and the other disputed terms, represent not so much disagreement about what the words "actually mean"

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as disagreement about which approach to dividing the realm has superior heuristic power. Clearly the vast conglomerate of events and things we call schooling can be correctly ordered in a number of different ways. There may be some wrong ways, for example, of analytically separating curriculum and instruction, but there are also a large number of right ways, and the choice of one of those right ways depends upon what one wishes to do with the analysis. Let me illustrate. The argument whether curriculum includes instruction or instruction includes curriculum is as insoluble as the chicken and egg problem if it is approached as an effort to establish fact. On the other hand it is quite soluble when it is conducted as an effort to establish a heuristic fiction for certain explicit purposes. Thus for the schoolman who takes his responsibility to mean control of the quantity and quality of learned behaviors, it is probably most useful to think of all school phenomena specifically in terms of their bearing upon instruction. He will seek to account for all phenomena in terms of their relation to learned behaviors, and thus he will construe, for example, the selection of materials as a sub-topic in the designing of instruction. On the other hand, the schoolman who considers his responsibility, in Deweyan fashion, to be control of the quality of experience through the medium of controlling environment will construe instruction as a component of the broader environment — which he may call the curriculum or the product of the curriculum system. Defining curriculum, I am trying to say, is a matter of how, for the convenience of enacting his commitment, one decides to imagine the in fact unsliced and unsliceable pie to be sliced. There are many subtleties to the argument over the "heuristic fiction" idea, but the field of curriculum is thus far so unsubtle as to be free to indulge itself in this simplification; how we define curriculum depends upon what we wish to do in education and not upon the discovery of a conclusive set of phenomena.

My tendency to be pluralistic with respect to defining curriculum is founded upon a more generally pluralistic view which I want to make clear. I do not believe that there is more than a very small number of prescriptive statements about curriculum that have general applicability. To say this a little differently, I don't believe that statements about what curriculum should be like have meaning outside of the context of the specific commitments of specific groups of people who have in fact taken responsibility upon themselves. The curriculum worker's skill consists, I believe, not in telling people what a curriculum should

be like but rather in articulating educational commitments — his own and those of others who have taken responsibility for control upon themselves — and in devising the means for expressing and enacting those commitments in programs. His work is not essentially the application of givens but the invention of means for articulating and enacting. And the possible number of good inventions, like the possible number of bad, is limitless. Thus among the very few prescriptive curriculum statements I find generally acceptable is the statement that curriculum processes should be open to the impact of the commitments of all those who would take responsibility for education programs. I shall return to this statement several times. I want now to move to a close examination of two of the curriculum worker's central tasks — articulating and enacting educational commitments.

COMMITMENT AND ARTICULATION

In this section I first want to consider course content relevant to the skill of articulating one's own educational commitments, and then move on to a more formal consideration of the curriculum student and the problem of articulation.

First, practice at articulating one's own commitments means practice at a certain kind of writing and speaking — the kind that involves naked assertion of belief, and examination of the relations between such assertions and conditions exterior to one's self. This kind of practice cannot be arranged simply through the assignment of a paper on "your personal beliefs about curriculum." Rather, the centrality of belief has to be woven into the fabric of the course; concern with belief has to be legitimated through the daily conduct of the class. A good way to begin this may be to call attention to the implicit presence of beliefs in almost any statement about curriculum being considered. Thus, the professor can point out that when an educator says "We should use material 'A' because it seems to bring about learning of 'X' more efficiently than material 'B'," his statement expresses at least three hidden beliefs. It expresses the belief that the learning of 'X' is desirable. Also, it expresses the belief that **efficiency** in the learning of 'X' is desirable. And finally, (this is a bit more subtle), it expresses belief that the method used to compare 'A' to 'B' does in fact lead to warranted assertions, both about the comparative efficiency of "courses" 'A' and 'B', and, more subtly still, about the actual

existence, as an "effect," of "the learning of 'X'." To repeat, then, the first thing the professor might do is call attention to the belief components of curriculum statements.

Another thing the professor might do is to express his own beliefs clearly and explicitly. That is, he can **show** the student that expertise in curriculum involves articulation of beliefs by articulating his own. Of course we all do this in one way or another. It is impossible not to. The problem comes, however, when we gloss over the fact that our beliefs are indeed beliefs, when we fail to distinguish between our beliefs and our knowledge and skills, and most especially when we either support or fail to oppose the prevalent notion that beliefs are unprofessional and unscientific — even slightly illegal.

Third, in the context of a course that emphasizes the centrality of personal beliefs and commitments in the curriculum profession, the profession, either through dialogue or paper assignment, can ask students to explore their own relevant beliefs. In dialogue, it is possible to illicit expressions of belief in a great many ways. One might well look at Rath's work[2] on clarifying values for insight here. While this work focuses upon younger people, many of its insights would seem capable of generalization to any age level. The assigned paper presents other problems. Depending upon one's personal taste in such matters, the approach can be as direct as asking people to explicate systematically their relevant beliefs in a single major paper or as indirect as merely suggesting that beliefs are relevant to the assigned paper topic, and then poking away at that aspect of the students' writing in one's criticism.

And, finally, I think that the process of articulating beliefs is often greatly facilitated by a kind of back-door approach. There are an enormous number of books which, without ever dealing explicitly with education, stake out basic assumptions about the nature or conditions of human experience from which implications for education flow. I'm thinking of such diverse statements as Tillich's, **The Courage to Be**;[3] Marcuse's, **One-Dimensional Man**;[4] Thoreau's, **Walden**;[5] Skinner's, **Walden II**;[6] Brown's, **Life Against Death**;[7] Huizinga's **Homo Ludens**,[8] and so on. I think it extremely important that students find books of this type that are in tune with their own basic view of things, and practice expressing their educational beliefs in terms of the language they find there.

The Role of Language

For the purpose of a more formal consideration of the articulation problem, I should like to begin with a premise that can be found in many places, including Hall's distinction between formal and informal language,[9] and Huebner's distinction, drawn from Heidegger, between language that is "ready-to-hand" and language that is "present-at-hand."[10] It is basically a simple premise; that much of our language is habitual but some of it is expansive, exploratory, being built as a world is being found. The student who needs new language to find himself in his commitments can go beyond the habitual language that is "ready-to-hand" in part by taking language out of habituality and looking at it rather than **through** it. And this looking **at** language is essentially what I mean by "studying the tools of articulation."

The point of view I want to begin with, and I think the point of view implied throughout Huebner's sustained critique of curriculum language,[11] is one that regards language as a kind of mediator between a thinking and meaning self and a world that is to be discovered. I want to work with this idea without going too deeply into the complicated issues it raises. The main point is this: language is the means by which the incredibly complex and swiftly moving processes of thinking and meaning get fixed in a tangible, extractable and manipulable form that can be brought out of the mind into the shared world. And, conversely, it is also the means by which what William James called "the blooming buzzing confusion"[12] of the world is reduced sufficiently to order to be brought into the mind intelligibly. And from this basic position I want to extract two simple propositions. One is that the kinds of language structures one has at one's disposal delimit the kinds of meaning one man grasp and extract from the continuous internal experience of the process of meaning. The second is that the kinds of language structures one has at one's disposal delimit the structures or patterns of orderliness one will perceive in the world outside himself.

I believe that these propositions illuminate Huebner's concern for the language of curriculum. For they show that curriculum language fixes both one's ability to articulate what he means by education, and one's ability to grasp what is happening in an actual educational situation out in the world. So when Huebner points to the "technological" character of curriculum language, he is pointing to constraints upon the curriculum specialist's ability to articulate what he means about education —

what beliefs and commitments he has about it — and to constraints upon what the curriculum specialist can see — see in the sense of differentiate from the "blooming, buzzing confusion" — of life in a school. Thus to whatever extent it is true that curriculum language is largely built around a dichotomous conception of means and ends, to the same extent will the curriculum specialist who employs curriculum language in his professional work be constrained both to articulating means-ends beliefs and to seeing means-ends phenomena. Certainly, it will be said, no professional person limits himself exclusively to a trade language. And yet the pressure of belonging to a language club is great because, as Huebner has argued,[13] we use language, among other things, to legitimate our actions and to affiliate with others. And indeed curriculum workers must communicate with others and communication requires the cultivation of a shared language. So I think that curriculum workers tend out of necessity to stick to the language of the curriculum club more than one might at first expect them to. And the point of this analysis is that teaching people to be curriculum workers involves teaching them these three things: 1) to pay careful attention to the common curriculum language in order that they come to understand what kind of tool it is — what it can and can't do for them as they attempt to enact their educational commitments; 2) to expand their given curriculum language and indeed to create new curriculum language that is commensurate with their personally held beliefs about the meanings of education and with their beliefs about the nature of the phenomena in the world of the school that it would be important to be able to see; and 3) to cultivate a community of shared new language with other people in the curriculum business.

Instructional Approaches in the Study of Curriculum Language

1. The first of these teaching tasks may be facilitated by at least these several resources. One might take examples of current curriculum language — Tyler's **Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction**[14] would do well because it is so compact and so transparent in its assumptions — and examine them not only for their intended content as is usually done in curriculum courses but also for the structures, such as the means-ends structure Huebner comments upon, that are built into their language. One might assign and discuss those papers by Huebner[15], and other scholars such as Macdonald,[16] Eisner,[17] and Kleibard,[18] that directly or indirectly analyze curriculum language. And one might attempt to examine, from an historical

perspective, the evolution of current curriculum language, finding relation, for example, to the growth of the idea that education can be a science, or to the growth and decline of progressivism, or to Dewey's quest for a language that on the one hand is pluralistic and on the other has the capacity to bring together in synthesis the dichotomies of traditional educational thought.

2. The second teaching task -- the expansion of old and creation of new curricular language — may perhaps be facilitated by asking students to use Huebner's[19] or Macdonald's[20] several "dimensions" of curriculum — the technological, aesthetic, scientific, etc. — or my own suggestions for curriculum criticism,[21] as a point of departure for developing new language structures. But a more valuable approach than this sort of exercise, I think, is to ask students to draw upon whatever sources outside of the curriculum literature seem to connect up with their own beliefs about education as a base for developing, in writing and in conversation, their own language structures for talking about curriculum.

3. The third task, the cultivation of shared language, involves at least two kinds of activity. One, which for all the commonplace sound of it cannot be neglected, is conversation. It seems to me that academic programs often over-look the academic importance of conversation that is serious and rigorous without at the same time employing a fixed, sanctioned, and established trade language. I imagine that the renovation of curriculum language by individuals who at the same time move toward the sharing of new language can be facilitated by such exercises as having students observe in a school and then attempt to discuss what they saw without recourse to the stock language. It is fascinating, for example, to describe an hour in a first grade class without using the word "learning" or any of its synonyms or any of the vocabulary associated with the word. Some groups will invent new ways of saying the same old things. Other groups will invent new shared language and find new phenomena.

The other, more formal, approach to cultivating shared language is through careful attention to research paradigms. This point will require some development.

Research in education is generally of a type that one might call the "learning-effectiveness comparison experiment." Typically, several different programs are compared to each other with respect to their reliability in bringing about a given learning effect and with respect to the degree of the given learning effect each can be relied upon to bring about under controlled conditions. Often the comparison is indirect, as when it is conducted through the medium of standardized performance norms. But the principle of learning effectiveness comparison remains the same. The principle provides a kind of idealized experiment, which sets the goal for the form of real experiments. Now this idealized experiment is what Thomas Kuhn, the noted historian of science, would call a **paradigm** experiment.[22] Kuhn points out that all scientific development is guided by its paradigms, and that the "epoch-making" developments in a science evolve around the successful struggle to supremacy of a new paradigm. This is so because in a very particular and important way the paradigm for research in a given field of inquiry determines the kinds of questions that may be asked in that field. Take our "learning effectiveness comparison" paradigm. All research that is conducted in accordance with this paradigm is constrained by definition to ask questions about the comparative effectiveness of several programs upon "learning," as learning is operationalized in the paradigm. Certainly this is a useful kind of question to ask, especially since several versions of the paradigm, varying with respect to the operationalized meaning of learning, have emerged to give the paradigm some flexibility. My point here is not to disparage this paradigm or the research it makes possible. What I am getting at is the impact of this paradigm upon the language of the educator. To explain this impact I have to digress.

As Dewey and many others have made so clear, one of the motives of scientists is the quest for certainty.[23] Educators especially, with their terrifying responsibility for the fate of children, desire some measure of certainty about the consequences of their decisions. Thus they are naturally inclined to depend heavily upon whatever paradigm has most satisfactorily demonstrated the warrantability of assertions resulting from its application. Consequently they tend also to shun assertions derived from the application of an inadequately established paradigm or assertions derived in the absence of any visible paradigm. Nor are educators unique in this, for Kuhn also makes the point, and it is central to his thesis, that scientists do not

abandon a given paradigm until another is presented and proven superior. Thus the problem about the learning effectiveness comparison paradigm is not any intrinsic weakness it has, but the power accrued to it by virtue of the educator's desire for certainty. For clearly there are an enormous number of questions we all would ask about our enterprise which cannot be asked within the constraints of our present research paradigm. Of course no one says we can't ask them anyway, but educators are busy people who want answers they can rely upon, and thus they have little patience, often, for questions that cannot be answered in the established dependable way. And they have less patience for unwarranted answers, which they like to call "speculation." Thus decisions about school are made as much as possible on the basis of questions and answers that are assumed (often incorrectly, alas), to be warranted by application of the paradigm.

Now the great tragedy here is that the personal commitments of the curriculum worker, that I take to be so important, do not often give rise to that infinite but still delimited set of questions that conform in structure to our current research paradigm. And the quest for certainty is so powerfully at work that its effect is to suppress personal commitments that cannot so conform.

In the pure sciences, where the aim is understanding of the phenomena under examination, this suppressive effect contributes to the continuity of inquiry and assures that only those men of courage and brilliance who can persevere in isolation to demonstrate the power of a new paradigm will be entitled to disrupt the steady flow of what Kuhn calls "normal" science. But in educational research, where one of the aims is to serve the fulfillment in practice of the educator's commitment to the pupil, the very excellence of a given paradigm can keep us from doing our job because it can discourage us from seeking the language forms needed to express our commitments. The conclusion I draw from this argument is that the development of new shared language depends in part upon the development of new and plausible paradigms. And paradigms cannot really be intentionally created in the same sense, say, that an hypothesis can be. For a given approach to warranting assertions only becomes a paradigm by being **used** as a paradigm by a **group** of people inquiring in a common realm. Nevertheless, the problem is not circular, as it at first might appear to be. Its solution re-

quires, first of all, that the problem of "certainty" itself be examined. I believe that if curriculum workers understood better both the problem of certainty itself and the really quite severely limited kind of certainty the present paradigm offers, they would either decide that they lacked the courage to be educators at all or that they had the courage to entertain propositions requiring other sorts of paradigms. They would discover, that is, that gauged against the distance between the current paradigm and the ideal of certainty, the distance between statements tested by that paradigm and other kinds of statements that are called speculative is comparatively small. It would become clear that the dichotomy the profession admires between "scientifically proven" and "speculative" is foolish and destructive. And the curriculum student, freed from illusions about the "certainty" of research, would also be free to explore the problem of warranting assertions generated by his personal commitments that do not conform to the current paradigm. With this door open, he may inquire into the paradigms of a range of contrasting disciplines, such as literary criticism, mathematics, and theology. And in this context he may begin to generate solutions to the problem of testing the warrantability of an unlimited range of educational propositions. At the very least, instead of classifying propositions into "scientific" and "foolish," he could match different kinds of propositions with different kinds of warranting procedures. Instead of being an apologist for his pet "non-scientific" commitments he could address himself intelligently to the problem of warranting them.

And this, I believe I have shown, is a prime condition for the development of new shared curriculum language. If the curriculum worker can make visible the limitations, as well as the competencies, of the current paradigm, and can point the way to the development of paradigms suited to as yet unexpressed educational commitments, then surely the educators he serves will be more willing than they now are to articulate those commitments and actively engage in the construction of new paradigms. And as new paradigms emerge and are refined, they will themselves in turn help generate a suitable language to be shared among educators with common commitments.

Suggested Content

I should like to be a bit more concrete now and suggest specific content for courses that would seek to fulfill the objective I have argued for in this section.

Dwayne Huebner's "Implications of Psychological Thought for the Curriculum"[24] opens up the whole problem area I have dealt with here. Kuhn's **The Structure of Scientific Revolutions**[25] explores fully the operation of paradigms within the context of natural science. Toulmin's **Introduction to the Philosophy of Science**[26] explores, among other things, the relation between insight and "modes of representation," and sheds light on the problem of scientific certainty. There is of course an enormous literature dealing with the nature of "scientific" knowledge, much of which will be highly instructive to the curriculum student; in clarifying the limits of our current paradigm, in revealing common errors in the educator's characteristic assumptions about the "scientific method," and in suggesting possible structures for new paradigms. Included in this strategy are such books as Toulmin's **Foresight and Understanding,**[27] Polanyi's **Science, Faith, and Society**[28] and **The Tacit Dimension,**[29] and Koyré's **Metaphysics and Measurement.**[30]

There is another vast body of literature which offers a different kind of approach to the same problem. Each in his own way, such diverse writers as Hall,[31] Whorf,[32] McLuhan,[33] Black,[34] Ramsey,[35] and even Heidegger[36] seem to offer insights into the relations between language and one or another construct that is functionally analogous to Kuhn's paradigms. Huebner, whose constant theme has been the freeing of the educator's language from its reliance upon a single paradigm, has written a most interesting paper (cited above) looking at the language of teachers from a Heideggerian point of view.

At a less profound level, the familiar literature on "the structure of the disciplines" has yielded as a sort of by-product some insight into "rules" for warranting assertions within various disciplines, and thus provides a fertile, if not yet cultivated, field for the curriculum student to explore in his search for new paradigms. An essay by Schwab[37] develops the notion of "syntax" (rules for warranting assertions) as a structure common to all disciplines, and a paper of mine[38] comments upon the prob-

lem of establishing a syntax for curriculum propositions. In another paper I have tried to extrapolate from several disciplines an approach to warranting critical statements about curriculum[39] that do not fit our current paradigm.

There are many other books one could add to this list. It is easy to list books, and easy to assign them. But before closing this section I should respond to the obvious fact that book lists do not equal courses content. The critical content I am suggesting here is the process the curriculum student must go through of considering his personal educational commitments against the background of some combination of books such as those I have mentioned. And the objective of asking him to do so is merely to open up to him the possibility 1) of finding new language for his own commitments and those of the educators he will serve, and 2) of facilitating the sharing of new language among educators with common commitments by attending to the problem of warranting assertions, arising from those commitments, that do not conform to the structures imposed by the currently popular paradigm.

COMMITMENT AND THE POWER TO ACT

Transforming educational commitment into programs is a complex problem that can be approached in many ways. The bulk of current curriculum literature approaches it by expressing commitments as educational objectives and then solving the problem of designing a program by casting those objectives in a learning paradigm. I am certainly not the first person to note that in this approach "something is lost in the translation."

I should like to skip the formality of noting the best texts in the standard literature and of mentioning the tentative leads to alternative approaches hinted at by various authors, and move immediately to a way of conceptualizing one aspect of the problem that has not been given sufficient attention.

Curriculum Politics

It is worth saying at the outset that my approach is political. My basic thesis is that education operates through political processes and that therefore the enactment of commitments depends upon political activity. By political I mean that the problem has to do with the distribution, acquisition, maintenance,

and use of power. For the very simple fact is that a curriculum worker cannot put into effect a program that fulfills either his own commitments or those of the people he serves without the power to do so.

In order to develop this point I should like to return to a statement made in the first section of this paper. I said there that one of the very few prescriptive curriculum statements I find generally acceptable is the statement that curriculum processes should be open to the impact of the commitments of all those who would take responsibility for controlling education. In fact, however, curriculum processes are generally closed to the impact of many of the people who are most interested in taking that responsibility; and, conversely, curriculum processes are often controlled almost exclusively by people who are not interested in taking that responsibility. The problem is something like the zealous manager of public lands who in the name of protecting the lands for the public in fact ends up by protecting the land **from** the public and keeping the public from the land. That is, the school managers often tend, in their zealous protection of the school system, to remember to protect educational institutions but forget for whom and for what they are protecting them. One must ultimately realize that, without meaning to, school managers often end up interested in and responsible for the continuity of institutions, programs, jobs, and even political power, and lose sight of the people whose educational interests they are supposed to serve. They do not, of course, forget about the students, the parents, and other community interests in education; but they see them from an institutionalized rather than a human educational point of view. Thus in effect they are cut off from the meaning of educational experience in the lives of the people being served by the schools, and tend instead to see educational experience in terms of the life of the institution. From such a viewpoint it is possible to be responsible for — to hold one's self accountable for — continuity of programs, but not meaningfulness of educational experience.

On the other hand there are other groups many of whose numbers have a direct interest in the experience of education and who, under appropriate circumstances, will hold themselves accountable for that experience. These groups include students, parents, and teachers.

There are two points these observations are intended to make. The first is that control of the curriculum process — the process of moving from educational commitment to educational program — rests almost exclusively with people whose jobs are defined and structured in such a way that they often do not hold themselves accountable for educational experience. The second point is that there are many other people who are interested in and would hold themselves accountable for educational experience, but whose educational commitments have little or no impact on present curriculum-making processes.

Now most of the standard curriculum texts make much of the point that the curriculum worker should discover the needs of the community he serves and build programs to satisfy these needs. But I think these texts naively overlook several facts. First is the fact that people's needs cannot be discovered for them, but only with them. The needs that are discovered with the methods suggested by the texts are needs that serve the manager's point of view. Essentially what is discovered is what society's institutions need **from** people, and not what the people need from the institutions.

Second is the fact that there are often genuine and severe conflicts between what people need from an institution and what the institution needs, in order to preserve itself, from the people it serves.

Third is a blatant fact of American life which seems somehow to escape educators. Namely, that the only people who can be counted upon to serve a group's interest is that group itself. The two major social movements in twentieth century America, labor and black liberation, were forced to this realization, after the repeated failure of sympathetic outsiders to do the job for them. And they also discovered what everyone else always knew, that in a competitive society interests cannot be served without power. Now it seems just as clear as anything could be that our educational bureaucracy has enormous pre-emptive power and that it uses that power primarily in the service of its own interests and its self serving definitions of the interests of others.

The conclusion I draw from all of this is the assertion I offered at the start of this section; that the curriculum worker's job involves him in the political process of seeking to redistribute power.

Power Through Program Structures

There are basically two kinds of power that are of concern to the curriculum worker. One is the kind that depends upon a group of people using whatever leverage it can find. The other, more subtle kind is power that is produced by program structures. I want to discuss each of these briefly.

During the past few years two group movements have emerged to challenge the centralized power-structure of the schools. Both of these movements draw their membership from people who have a genuine and legitimate interest in what happens in the schools; both of these movements therefore are part of the realm of interests the curriculum worker is supposed to serve. And both are very much in need of his service. The two movements are the community control movement and the student union movement. My thesis here, in brief, is that both of these movements have occurred for the same reasons: 1) a gap has developed between administrative jargon about individual needs and community needs, on the one hand, and individuals' and communities' perceptions of their own needs on the other; 2) thanks largely to radical black leaders like Malcolm X and Stokely Carmichael, there has been a growing awareness among all groups in which experience is characterized by the feeling of powerlessness and helplessness that they themselves must take responsibility for change — that no one else can express, serve, or fulfill their interests for them. Certainly others may help, if they have special competencies that are needed and if they are willing to be of service without being in command. But the point is that student groups and minority community groups have wakened up to the fact that their educational interests will only be served to the extent that they take responsibility for and control of their educational programs. It is amazing to me that this proposition, which is regarded as a truism in so many aspects of American life, is regarded increduously in the context of education. I suspect that the disbelief has a great deal to do with general acceptance of the principle that basically education should serve national rather than community and personal interests. And this principle frankly horrifies me, not so much because it is wrong as because it is so foolish to consider that programs which fail to fulfill individual and community aspirations can somehow nevertheless fulfill the national interest.

Whatever the precise reason for their emergence, the growing strength of these movements offers the curriculum worker opportunities that are unprecedented in recent American history. His ultimate objective of helping people create programs that express their commitments and for which they take responsibility can be served by a number of kinds of concrete intermediate actions. These will vary in appropriateness from group to group, but they all fit within the curriculum worker's task as I see it.

1. He can assist in dissemination of the idea that both students and community groups can take responsibility for their educational interests.

2. As a person with some expertise in education he can help groups understand the institution they are concerned with. By this I mean that he can help the group he is serving understand historical, sociological, and pedagogical aspects of the school in its present condition.

3. He can help groups make the kind of theoretical analysis of problems that is necessary to move from knowing what one is against to knowing what one is for. Student groups, for example, are often correctly convinced that "grades" do not serve their educational commitments, but are in need of assistance in figuring out what kinds of evaluation procedures under what circumstances are in their educational interest.

4. He can help groups understand the structure and operation of power within the school system in question, in order to facilitate sound strategic decisions about the acquisition of the power required to make the kinds of programs that are desired.

5. And finally he can assist groups in the actual design of programs suited to their interests. Here his command not only of instructional materials but of the other, much more subtle, aspects of program design, become crucially important. Here he needs the ability to think about curriculum in a way, for example, that takes cognizance of the various "dimensions" of curriculum that Huebner has called to our attention.[40] And here, too, we come to the point of having to recognize two kinds of limits. First, there is a depressing limit to our formal understanding of any but the instructional dimension of curriculum. Huebner has given a set of tools to the curriculum worker, but

these tools have not been experimented with enough to have yet generated a body of literature the worker can go to for guidance. He is stuck with a set of questions to ask (for as tools Huebner's "dimensions" really amount to a set of questions we should be asking as we make curricula), and his own ingenuity. Nevertheless, I believe that if the curriculum worker becomes accustomed to asking the questions during the course of his training — questions about the aesthetic, political, ethical, and scientific dimensions of curriculum — then as he moves into practice he will find that he and the group he is helping can generate programs that implicitly convey uniquely appropriate answers.

The second kind of limit to be recognized at this point has to do directly with the nature of the curriculum worker's responsibilities. In essence the limit is given by the proposition made early in the paper and then again early in this section of the paper — that the curriculum should be open to the impact of **all** those who would take responsibility. That means that the curriculum worker is limited, in his effort to help any given group have an impact, by his commitment to a curriculum process that is open to a variety of impacts. The way in which he works for any given group is thus constrained by a pluralistic conception of curriculum itself. He may not work toward taking pre-emptive control from one group only in order to give this same pre-emptive control to another group; rather, his work on behalf of a given group takes the form, in part, of building curriculum structures that are intrinsically open to a variety of influences including the influence of the particular group he is working for.

There are enormous problems to making a reality out of this conception. One is that we know little about the curriculum decision-making process we have. Another is that in spite of the philosophically pluralistic nature of democratic thought our society has not yet done well at devising pluralistic institutions. Our economic rather than our political philosophy sets the tone of our institutions, and these, as Dewey observed in **Experience and Education,** converse in either/or's rather than "ands." We do not know how to build pluralistic power structures for our schools any more than for our other institutions.

At least a part of the solution to this problem involves looking at power structures not as mechanisms through which conflicting interests compete, but rather in terms of the avail-

ability of options that serve conflicting interests. I should like to turn, then, to the second kind of power that concerns the curriculum worker, the kind that is intrinsic to program structures.

Power to Choose Among Pluralistic Options

Power is related to choice the way a ball poised is related to a ball falling; potential energy and kinetic energy. Power is a state of potential which becomes actual in the exercise of choice. And this notion illuminates the statement above that the curriculum worker "is constrained by a pluralistic conception of curriculum itself." The presence of appropriate and sufficient choice in a curriculum complements and ultimately obviates the necessity for a plurality of power groups influencing curriculum, in much the same way that adequate production and distribution under socialism is believed to obviate the need for "the state." Thus if one accepts the principle that schools are to serve a maximally various array of individual, group, and community educational needs, one is obliged also to accept the conclusion that the greatest challenge the curriculum worker faces in response to the increasing pressure of competing power groups is the challenge to make pluralistic, option-loaded educational programs. This proposition poses a number of difficult problems for the curriculum worker, two of which seem especially critical to me. One is identifying the dimensions of plurality that fall within the realm of education. Another is interpreting "choice" in a rigorous way that does not degenerate into self-indulgence and doing "whatever you **feel** like doing." There are no ready solutions to these problems, and no place the curriculum worker can go for set answers. Thus it seems to me that his training had best introduce him to them and at least encourage him to work on these problems in the hope that over time solutions will emerge. I should like to elaborate on each of these problems at least enough to indicate where such work might begin.

1] One dimension of plurality is course content, and this dimension may exist at various levels. Pupils might be permitted to choose a book for a report within a prescribed course; they might be permitted to fix the specific over-all content of the course within a general designated area; or they might be permitted to choose courses or to choose from among several alternative sets of courses. Much of the current furor, for example, over the "Black Curriculum" reflects concern with this

dimension of plurality, and yet it is a relatively superficial dimension and not an adequate medium for expressing the radical dissent from middle-class white education to which many black students are now committed. What they seek, I believe, without being able to articulate it well, is something much more radically different from the white curriculum than an inked-over mirror image. Black students do not merely want black history courses in which they study black leaders in the context of the same historical and pedagogical assumptions that now guide the study of white leaders. I believe they seek a new approach to the discipline of history itself and a new approach to the method of studying history. Their demands for reform, therefore, far from being **too** radical, are not radical enough. Their educational dissent cannot be boiled down to a matter of choosing course content, as they themselves have tried to do. There are other dimensions of choice needed, and it is the task of the curriculum worker to provide these.

The case of the militant black student is only one example, though an extremely important one, to consider. I suspect that the kinds of pluralistic structures black students are beginning to demand now are of great and general pedagogical significance, and that if curriculum workers can meet the challenge our overall educational system will be much better for it. Let me suggest, then, a few of the other dimensions of choice which the curriculum worker will have to learn to deal with.

One dimension is the nature of the learning situation itself. The hallowed "teacher-learner" relationship will have to coexist with other kinds of learning situations; situations in which teacher role and learner role become fluid and interchangeable; situations in which there is learning without any teacher-role taking place; situations in which everyone present takes a teaching role; and other variations.

Another dimension of choice will challenge the sharp demarcation between school and world.[41] The boundary will have to become a permeable one with educational options existing on both sides and being defined in part by the conditions for crossing the boundary. Curriculum workers, that is, will have to present educational options that are defined by particular ways in which activities in school and activities out of school are related and integrated in a student's experience.

A third dimension of choice will have to deal with the circumstances in which people come together for common study or in which they work alone. A fourth will have to do with the kinds of evaluative procedures used in a given program. It is obvious that meaningful evaluation must be linked to intent, and yet even the sorts of options that could easily exist without any significantly new curriculum designing are minimized by the operation of uniform evaluation systems. A student, that is, is often penalized for taking something from a course that differs from the teacher's judgment of what he should take regardless of the degree of worth of what he does take. A plurality of evaluation procedures would in itself open up options to students with no further curricular modifications.

A fifth dimension of choice will be based upon recognition that there are a variety of modes of engagement between person and world. The identification of modes of engagement might be evolved out of any of a number of classificatory schemes. Phenix's "Archetectonics" is one possibility.[42] Work in progress by David Sanford on the implications of Jungian Psychology for the curriculum might generate another.[43] Contemporary research on creativity and productive thinking suggests still other possibilities. Nothing like a definitive statement is even thinkable at this time; there are enormous possibilities here for the inventive curriculum student. Like definitions of curriculum itself, analyses of "modes of engagement" between person and world may be thought of as heuristic fictions. The skilled curriculum worker will devise the fiction that generates alternatives that speak to the people he serves.

Now these suggestions are all unoriginal. They have a great deal in common with reforms advocated by the progressive educators of several decades ago. But neither this fact nor the fact that the progressives failed to build such programs in a way that demonstrated the soundness of the concept of pluralism in education discredit the concept itself. In fact one might well argue that the failure of the subsequent swing back to discipline-centered authoritarian and monistic pedagogy is clearly demonstrated by the rapidly escalating dissent of students (often the brightest ones) from the educational establishment. The progressives tried to say that education must serve the interests of students in a way that is visible to them and chosen by them. Our failure to heed that position has certainly contributed

strongly to the development of the view among students that they must seize power in order to take a meaningful education. What I am advocating here is that the curriculum worker serve the student by developing programs that give him a multi-dimensional power of choice.

The thorn in the side of the progressives, however, has been their failure to define "choice" in a pedagogically rigorous way. This, then, brings me to the second major problem area faced by the curriculum worker who is committed to pluristic educational programs.

2] My comment here shall be brief. Dewey's analysis of "interest," as distinct from an array of progressivist interpretations of it, is the obvious point of departure. His discussion of the term in **Democracy and Education, Child and Society, School and Curriculum, Experience and Education** provides a necessary, but hardly sufficient, insight into the problem of students choosing their educational experiences. I shall not review his analysis here, but rather urge that Dewey's contribution be reintroduced into curriculum courses, not as a basis for prescription in the fashion of Kilpatrick but rather for its merit as an analytic approach to this most critical problem of student choice. My hope would be that renewed interest in the problem on the part of curriculum workers would generate both informal "experimentation" and formal research, and ultimately would result in better understanding of the conditions under which pedagogically sound choosing of activities is likely to take place. There are a large number of obvious hypotheses the curriculum student might explore both conceptually and empirically. One is that the traumatic restriction of options occurring at first grade does lasting damage to one's ability to make sound choices. Another is that inclusion in the formal curriculum, starting at an early grade level, of opportunities to develop the skill of curriculum criticism will enhance student ability to make sound educational choices. Another is that early introduction of options together with systematic evaluation by the student of the fruitfulness of choices made will enhance the same ability. Another is that ability to choose soundly follows a grade-related cycle that is correlated to the cycle of waxing and waning creativity identified by Torrance, and that this cycle has both developmental and environmental determinants.

The point here is that an answer must be developed to the contention that students, given choice, tend to do nothing significant. The sound choosing of personally significant educational experience is central to the functioning of a pluralistically conceived school. A crucial problem for curriculum workers is the identification and establishment of conditions in the school environment in which such choosing will flourish.

The Curriculum Worker's Political Preparation

I have tried in this section to develop a political view of the task of enacting educational commitments, and in so doing I have commented upon two kinds of power that are of concern to the curriculum worker. One kind is the power of groups to have an impact upon curriculum decisions, and the other kind is the power of individuals to choose programs within a maximally pluralistic educational setting. Implied throughout this discussion is the proposition that the curriculum worker is responsible to communities and students rather than to school systems and school officials. And this proposition suggests some fascinating possibilities. Would it be possible, for example, for high school student unions, which are springing up around the country, to hire their own curriculum workers to help them formulate more precisely than they have thus far been able to do the sorts of educational demands they wish to make of the schools? Or, with such help, could the unions develop educational programs outside of the school which could win legal recognition as equivalent alternative experiences to those offered by the school? The impact of such developments both upon the lives of students and upon the motivation of schools to develop more pluralistic programs themselves could be enormous.

Regardless of whether or not these speculations are valid, the point remains for the professor of curriculum that his students — potential curriculum workers — are preparing for a job that is as much political as pedagogical. In arguing this point I have referred only scantily to books one might assign, but I believe I have stated fairly concretely a number of problems requiring exploration and hypotheses requiring testing; and I believe that problems and hypotheses are as valid a way to describe course content as book lists are. The biggest of a number of problems I have left completely untouched is that of being able to judge what actual programs do in fact fulfill what educa-

tional commitments. At present we can help a student select course content. But we know very little about the relation of other dimensions of curriculum to other kinds of educational commitments and aspirations. I have worked on this problem some in a paper called "Curriculum Criticism."[44] The basic argument is that curriculum may be described, in much the manner as literature, as an array of possibilities which take on symbolic meaning as they are chosen. Curriculum criticism, like literary criticism, might then be regarded as the act of disclosing the meanings of curriculum choices. Since educational commitments may be thought of as statements about what is meaningful, curriculum criticism might be an appropriate vehicle for moderating between personal commitment and curriculum programs. All of this leads into a whole new territory, though. I would like to close this section simply by restating my belief that the training of curriculum workers should include analysis of the problems and involvement in the processes of the redistribution of the power to affect curriculum, both through the assistance of groups with particular educational interests and through the creation of programs which maximize the possibility of fruitful choice.

CONCLUSION

I have dwelt at length upon two of the curriculum worker's tasks. Both of these, the articulation of commitments and the distribution of power to allow for enactment of commitments, have been based on a pluralistic and person-centered view of education. This view is certainly not novel; it has characterized much of the work ASCD has done. The particular tasks I have emphasized, however, have not received great attention; yet I think they are important steps towards the goals of this organization. "Humanizing Education"[45] is the title of a recent ASCD pamphlet. Education cannot be humanized when the aspirations of persons are catalogued as behavioral objectives; and it cannot be humanized until educators are ready to think realistically about the power requirements for fighting against the forces in our society that have succeeded in dehumanizing it. Thus the task of articulation is aimed at bridging the gap between the behavioral objectives of systems and the aspirations of people; and the task of distributing power is aimed at making a fight against dehumanizing forces feasible.

I certainly have not solved the problems involved in training curriculum workers to perform these tasks. If I have identified the problems at all clearly and indicated some approaches to their solution, I will have accomplished all I hoped for

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KNOWLEDGE OF CURRICULAR PRACTICE

Curriculum Problems Facing the Schools: Now and in the Future*

This has been a difficult paper to compose. I attempted, first, to write in a positive mode saying what I, as a teacher invited to represent the larger body of teachers, see to be the realities of curriculum in 1969 and those of the future, as I am able to project them from the present.

I found myself increasingly frustrated by the task. I could not identify clearly what these realities are. The farther into the matter I went the more I sensed an incendiary situation.

The world is not a very happy place today. There are wars and rumors of wars, generation gaps, racial conflicts, campus rebellions, hard-core poverty that doesn't respond to treatment, riots in the streets, increasing drug abuse, runaway taxation, constant nuclear threat, population explosions, mental health problems, a continued increase in adult and juvenile crime, prison scandals, suicides among not only the mature segments of the population but among our young people, increased disillusionment with organized religion, indeed with "organized" society in general, and a relaxation of sexual mores with its resultant mental, emotional, and physical problems and complexities.

I try to see what have been pointed out to be the more optimistic aspects of the modern world: more efficient technology available to more people, faster and safer transportation that brings the peoples of the world geographically closer, continued medical advances, a generally higher standard of living for larger numbers of people, advances into space where once man never dreamed he could go. I know and understand that all these things, and many more, are the hallmarks of the progress of civilized man.

Why is it, then, that I continue to be so concerned about the disintegrative realities of the present world? Why is it that, as a teacher, I am unable to see the technological strides that

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man has made as meeting and coping, and coping effectively, with these disintegrative realities? Why doesn't our bigger and better mousetrap rid us of the mice that plague us?

As I said, I tried first to approach this paper both positively and optimistically. I was unable to develop it in this way for the disintegrative persistently intruded itself. The world is not a generally happy place; it is a dismal one, and I can't help but wonder if this is not what the young people we find so difficult to understand are trying to tell us.

As a teacher who wants to do the best job possible, I try to keep abreast of something called the "professional literature." I join my professional organizations and I read my professional journals. Wanting to improve my teaching competency and remain effective in the classroom, I enroll in classes and work toward more advanced degrees and I attend my professional meetings. I feel an obligation toward what I must do to keep myself viable as a person who works with young people.

But hard as I try not to be so, I am continually disillusioned with what I see and hear. I ask, "How do I reach these children?" and I am given standarized, efficiently researched answers based on the latest objective data from psychology, sociology, and education. I ask, "What is it I should teach them?" and I am given the newest, the most up-to-date technologically oriented programmed materials.

Recently I saw a film that proudly showed a "modern" classroom where five-year-old children were sitting isolated with massive earphones on their heads before large panels of buttons and switches. I remember distinctly the exasperated look on the face of one child whose earphones kept slipping off. As I watched these five-year-olds struggle to manage the gear of their learning I couldn't help asking myself repeatedly, "Why?" I rather imagine that the most significant thing these children were learning was not the programmed learning content, but rather the ins and outs of pushing buttons and switches and adjusting to headsets. They were becoming skilled technicians at an early age.

As a teacher I find I must continually ask, "Is this really what we're after? Do we want in a world where the population is growing like a cancer out of control a generation of young people who are educated to respond to a problem by pushing a button or flipping a switch?

Why, as a teacher, do I find myself continuing to rebel against technology as the establishment's ready answer to the puzzlements of education? Why do I continue to find myself concerned about better interaction at a human level between people?

As a teacher, I feel that my task is a personal one. I am charged with the responsibility of being a human being. This means, to me, that I have values: there are things which I like and things which I dislike. It means, to me, that I have my own personal ranges of experiences: I have both my joys and my hurts. It means, to me, that I am a curious creature: I have many questions and some answers. It means, to me, that I am fallible and finite: I make mistakes and I must face the reality of my own death. (By the way, how much **are** we doing to teach children and young people of the reality of death, of death as a natural portion of the scheme of life? Part of young peoples' present violent stand against war has, I think, nothing to do with war. It is, rather, in large measure, a matter of their inability to approach reconciliation with the fact of death. What is being done anywhere in the society to help them with this developmental task?)

As a teacher, I have been placed with young people to represent society at large. My delegated task is to represent the collective maturity of that society and to influence and assist the conduct of young people in their inward and outward reach for their own individual maturity. I am responsible in three directions: to the young people I encounter to preserve the conditions necessary to their growing; to society to preserve the best of its heritage; to myself to preserve my autonomy as an individual human being. But as a teacher in the incendiary world of 1969 I find it increasingly necessary to ask: what **are** the conditions necessary to the educational growth of young people? What **are** the lasting elements of the world's cultural heritage? What constitutes my basic human autonomy?

I do not profess to be knowledgeable at a theoretical level about these last three questions. I live daily with the practical realities of the classroom, not with the abstract exploration of education. My primary charge is to meet children and teach them, not to articulate objective theory; this last is the task of others in the system.

But there are some things I can say about curriculum from the perspective of the classroom where I work. If, in education, we are indeed in the business of assisting and influencing human growth, then we must make central to what we do, the human being, not only **outside** the classroom, but more importantly **inside.** It is not always enough to focus with children on what lies beyond the walls of the school. It is necessary as well for students and teacher to recognize each other as participants in what goes on inside. This means, to me, respecting each other as sources of knowledge. Creators of any kind of knowledge are processors of their own inner resources. The task of the teacher is to help children recognize themselves as such creators. As a teacher, I find it most necessary to become acutely attuned to the ways in which individual students process their learning. The business of learning involves finding a way to do what needs to be done. I am responsible for seeing that conditions within the classroom are such that each student is free to find effective and personally satisfying ways of learning.

Doing this has become largely a matter of listening much and talking little. But what I am listening to, with each child, is a thinking process at work. What I am giving him, as a teacher, is an opportunity to hear himself think, without — insofar as is possible — my injecting my adult biases into his processing of himself as learner. (Often I have found that when I object to what a student has said I have been presenting him with the hurdles in **my** thinking, not in his. His attention, then, is forced to shift from his own immediate learning needs to my needs. I'm not convinced that I can defend this in the classroom situation where the responsibility of the adult is to the individual's learning process and self-determination.)

If students are to have the confidence necessary to deal with the present disintegrative realities of the mature world, there must be some arena somewhere where the needs of that confidence can be nurtured and developed. The classroom is that place. Confidence and competency are, I have found, best built through the trust and encouragement of the teacher.

Confidence, trust, encouragement: these are words that I rarely hear in conjunction with education. When I enroll in my education classes for professional growth, somehow "encouragement," "trust," "confidence" don't seem to fit together with the facts in those courses. I am instructed that grading children in school is bad; but I am graded by those who say so. I am taught

that we must treat children as individuals; but often the very instructor who says so does not know my name even by the end of the term. I am informed that research shows that teachers do most of the talking in the average classroom; and the professor takes hours to tell me so. I am told that teachers should encourage students to identify their own problems; but I am labeled old-fashioned and am ostracized by professional colleagues if I mention that "discipline" is the greatest problem I have in my classroom.

What are the realities of the world of young people? In schools are we indeed focusing our attention upon the problems that these young people encounter? What are the differences between youth and age, between immaturity and maturity? What are the things which youth sees which age has become blind to? And conversely, what are the things which maturity has revealed to the adult? Are we helping young people to meet and try to solve their problems, or we in the schools projecting our adult problems upon them and expecting them to cope with them?

There is a time for childhood and there is a time for maturity. Each age has its developmental tasks, its own unique problems which fit to its expanding maturity. It is not the task of educators, of teachers, to unload their problems on the shoulders of youth. It is the task of the educator to assist youth to define its own reality.

As a teacher, I find it disturbing to know young people, even small children in elementary school, who, for instance, take tranquilizers regularly. And I find I must ask, "Is it their reality which has brought them to this, or is it ours?" Do the natural tasks of childhood bring ulcers or make suicide the only way out for them as they reach and endure adolescence? — or is it some other world, some world beyond their present talents for coping, that renders them powerless?

It is this, then, which makes me question, "What is the cultural heritage we are passing on to our youth, and at what expense?" We teachers conscientiously plan lessons daily which are designed to help our children reach an understanding of the democratic way of life, an understanding of the languages other peoples speak, an understanding of the history which has brought mankind to where he is. It is reaping us dissatisfaction,

unrest, and rebellion from our young people. Why? What is it that we are teaching implicitly through the curriculum of the schools?

A number of people have been pointing out that youth today seem to know what they are against, but they don't seem to be clear on what it is they are for. Is this a natural concern of the schools? As a teacher, I feel it should be. It seems to me that curriculum makers should hold themselves responsible for helping young people discover what their own personal, positive, constructive convictions are. It does not seem to me to be enough to encourage in young people a critical attitude which knows only how to find what is "wrong" in the world. The "wrong" can be truly understood only in contrast with what one believes to be "right."

What is "right" with the world today? What are the hopes that, as a teacher, I should be holding out to the young people I teach? What are the bridges across the generation gaps that have been pointed out? What are the positive values the adult world holds, that would make the maturing process attractive to the young of today? (It doesn't take much looking to come to the realization that adolescents are afraid of growing up: too many of them hide like furtive little animals behind their hair and hang on desperately to the garb and pleasures of childhood.) What is it that, as adults, we are proud of? What are our accomplishments that we really want to pass on to another generation? Do we have them?

What is my real responsibility as a teacher in the classroom? Is it to teach the facts of existence or to teach how to cope with those facts? To teach about life or to help make it possible for young people to experience richer living? To create human automatons or to nurture creative, confident human beings? These are the basic issues I live with in teaching; these are the kinds of questions for which I daily must find answers.

TECHNOLOGICAL APPLICATIONS TO BUILDING CURRICULUM IN THE FIELD OF CURRICULUM

A Survey of Curriculum Courses and Content*

In an effort to obtain a current survey of curriculum offerings, a modified and limited form of a 1965 survey instrument** was sent to the 27 institutions which responded to the original survey. Fifty additional institutions similar to the original 27 were asked to provide data. From this group of 77 institutions, 33 institutions, including 14 of those who had responded in 1965, returned the completed survey instrument. Data provided through this new survey gives us some indication of the nature of courses and content being offered in teacher education institutions and identifies some changes that are taking place.

Course Listing

The survey of curriculum offerings in 33 institutions in 1969 revealed 186 courses as compared to 116 courses listed by the 27 institutions that responded in 1965. The 1969 survey indicates that there is an average of 5.7 curriculum courses per institution whereas the 1965 survey showed an average of 4.6 courses per institution. When courses listed in the 1969 survey were grouped into eight major categories it was noted that nearly one-half of these courses are classified as general curriculum. The next largest number of courses were classified as curriculum development with 17 per cent and curriculum problems with 14 per cent. A comparison of these factors in the two surveys indicates a decrease in the curriculum development category and an increase in the general category (Table 1).

Curriculum Content

A significant finding in regard to course content is that about the same number of courses in both surveys give major

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*Prepared by Lutian R. Wootton, Professor of Education and Chairman of the Department of Curriculum and Supervision, College of Education, The University of Georgia, with the assistance of Robert W. Selwa, Doctoral Candidate in Curriculum at The University of Georgia.

Wootton, Lutian R., "The Curriculum: Is the Concept Changing?" **Clearing House, 42 (November, 1967), 143-145.

attention to bases for curriculum content, curriculum theory, curriculum principles and curriculum plans of organization. These areas of content are provided in more than 50 per cent of all courses. In addition, it is found that 40 per cent of all classes provide students with the opportunity to study history and development of curriculum, scope and sequence in content areas, to plan courses in content areas and to develop skill in problem solving. It was found that trends and issues which influence the curriculum were examined in three-fourths of the courses listed. This is classified as a medium of instruction but may very well be an indication of the actual content of courses (Table 2).

These aspects of content in curriculum as specified seem to be included in a variety of course titles with none specifically for any one set of courses. From the date received, it is impossible to be assured by a title of a course what specific body of content it embraces. For example, ten institutions listed the course "Elementary School Curriculum." Of the eight possible content topic choices the range is none to six.

Materials, Media, Techniques

The practice of requiring students to purchase textbooks in curriculum courses has decreased from 66 per cent to 56 per cent or a drop of 10 per cent. However, textbook purchase is still required in half the courses listed in the 1969 survey.

Other significant findings include a 10 per cent increase in courses which employ team teaching and slight decrease in lecture-discussion as a class procedure. The most significant change noted is that current periodicals are listed as a major source of content for 52 per cent of the courses in 1969 as contrasted with only 22 per cent in 1965. Usage of practically all facets of course materials, media and techniques showed a marked increase over the 1965 survey (Table 3).

For those who are concerned as to whether curriculum and methods can or should be taught separately, this survey shows that more than 50 per cent of the courses listed teach both curriculum and methods in the same course. Respondents were specifically requested not to include any methods courses in the survey as a safeguard to the confusion of the two. We must conclude, therefore, that at least half of our respondents have

TABLE 1

CLASSIFICATION OF COURSES

Total Number of Courses	116	
	186	
Curriculum Development	30%	
	17%	
General Curriculum	39%	
	47%	
Laboratory Experiences	7%	
	6%	
Foundations	1%	
	3%	
Special Curriculum	9%	
	5%	
Curriculum Theory	5%	
	6%	
Curriculum Trends	0%	
	2%	
Curriculum Problems	10%	
	14%	
Research and Evaluation (Included in other titles)	0%	
	2%	

1965
1969

TABLE 2

COURSE CONTENT

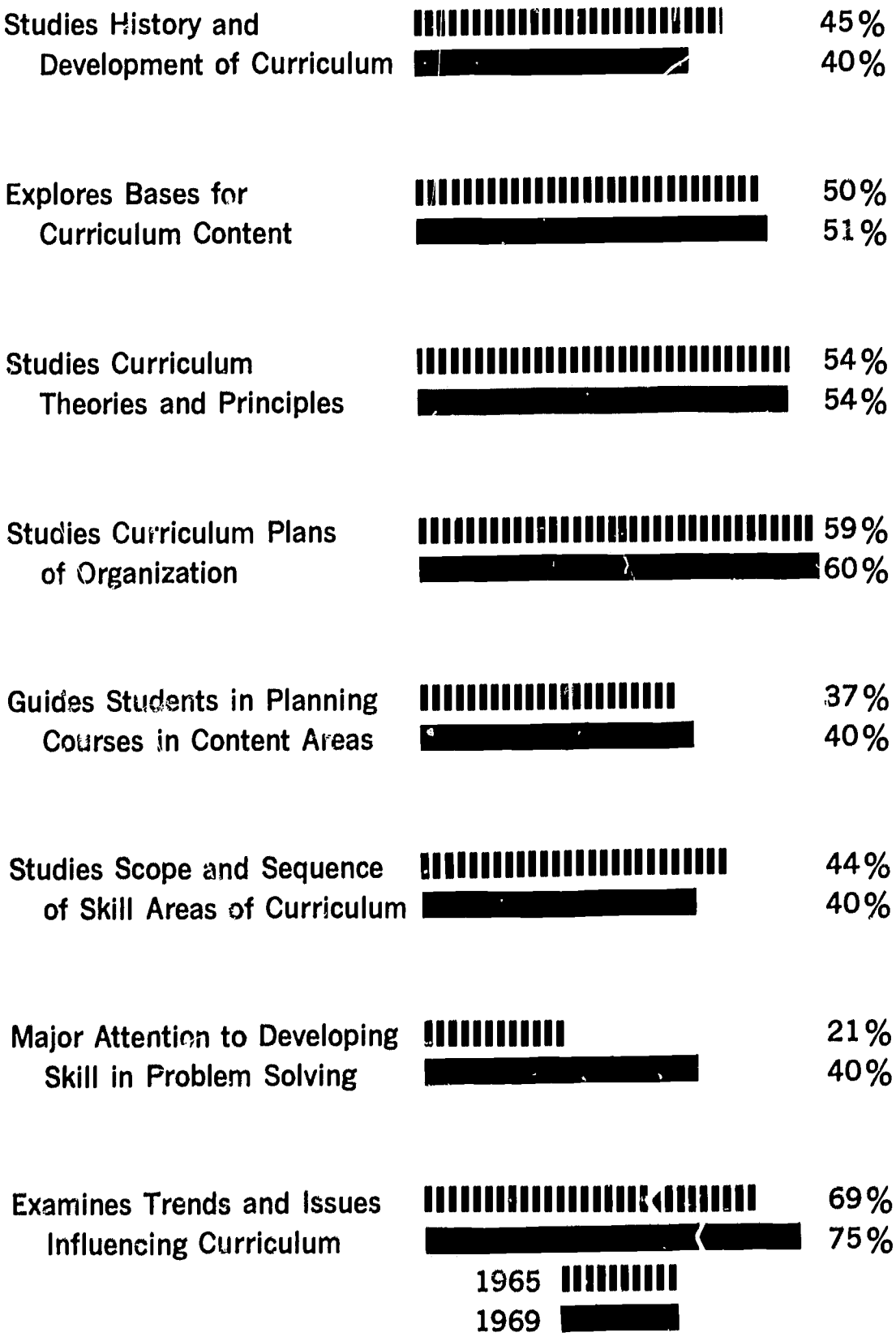
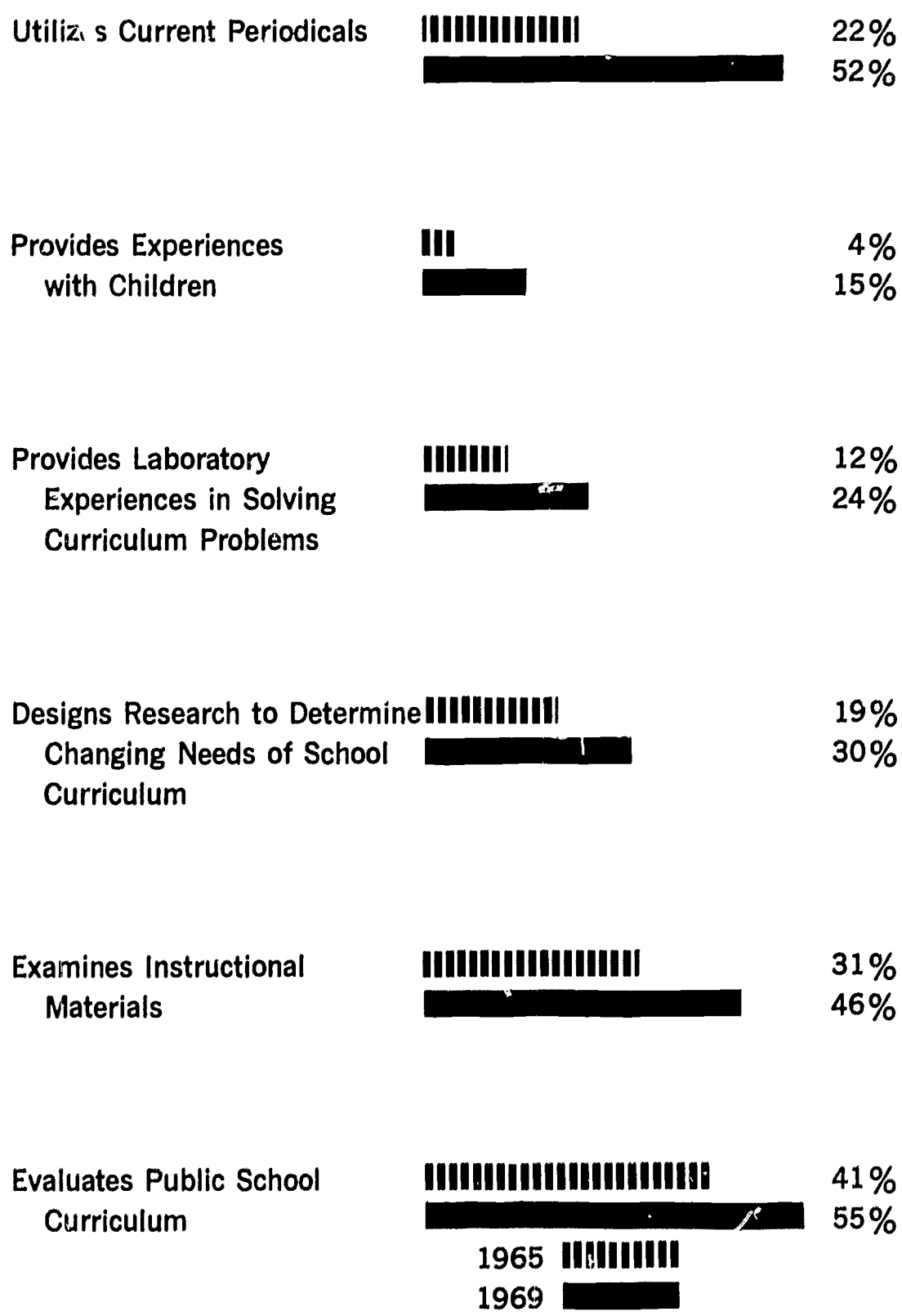


TABLE 3

COURSE MATERIALS, MEDIA, AND TECHNIQUES



difficulty in separating curriculum and method as content for teacher education courses, or it may be that they see content as something different than we have previously considered as such.

Course Memberships

It is recognized that the population for which a course is offered is a strong determinant of course content. An examination of the groups for which the courses are being offered shows that 81 per cent of the courses are for graduate students, 15 per cent for undergraduate and 4 per cent for undergraduates and graduates. A more important factor is that 52 per cent of these courses are planned for teachers only. Twenty-nine are open to teachers, administrators and curriculum directors or supervisors. This means that 81 per cent are open to teachers. Eighteen per cent are for administrators, curriculum directors, or supervisors only. Only two courses (one per cent of the listing of courses) are primarily for professors of curriculum in college (Table 4). One might ask how many curriculum courses do teachers normally take? Could it be that they take only one or two? If so, this is part of our reason for half of the courses being in the general category and content topics not being confined to certain course titles.

Changes in the Last Five Years

The survey of 1969 revealed that changes have been made in curriculum offerings in 20 of the 33 institutions within the last five years. Courses have been added such as Curriculum Theory, Fundamentals of Curriculum, Curriculum Trends, and many courses in curriculum for specified separate subject areas. Most of these courses added appear to be similar to curriculum courses which have been listed in teacher education institutions for some time. However, some different titles such as Early Childhood Education, The Middle School, and Counseling and Curriculum have been added. Revision of course content indicates that content is being modified in terms of the changing scene in education. These revisions include such relatively new aspects of curriculum as Structure of Knowledge, Educational Technology, Behavioral Objectives, Social Trends, and Practicum Experiences. Curriculum experiences being added other than regular college courses seem to center on college student involvement in public school experiences through field trips, field studies, and field problems.

TABLE 4

COURSE MEMBERSHIP 1969

Graduate Only	81%
Undergraduate Only	15%
Graduate and Undergraduate	4%
Teachers Only	52%
Teachers, Administrators, Curriculum Directors, and Supervisors	29%
Administrators, Curriculum Directors, Supervisors, and College Professors	18%
College Professors Only	1%
Total of Courses Open to Teachers	81%

Changes Being Projected

It is exciting to note the contemplated curriculum changes in 1969 as contrasted with those recorded in 1965. Only three institutions in 1965 expected any change in curriculum offerings. One of these institutions planned to add three to five courses. Another expected to add an internship. The third institution planned to add some laboratory experiences. In the 1969 survey, 25 institutions indicated that they expect to make changes in curriculum offerings. Two institutions plan to develop a doctoral program in curriculum. Several other institutions are adding courses to their graduate programs in curriculum. Some indicate that they are re-studying their total offerings in curriculum. One institution has developed a new organization with an area of specialization in curriculum, and its faculty is presently considering the development in 15 new courses. A variety of other anticipated changes were expressed.

Emerging Trends Recognized

Responses by those providing data for the survey expressed a number of significant statements as to emerging trends which they consider are influencing the curriculum. They are as follows:

1. Teacher education is gaining recognition as a university function.

2. Cooperation between universities and schools is increasing through cooperative curriculum endeavors.

3. More curriculum service is being offered to public school systems.

4. Changes in social institutions and major social problems are being related to the role of schools.

5. The non-curriculum idea of approaching content development on the basis of questions of people in anguished conditions is emerging.

6. Attention is being given to clarification of objectives by using behavioral language.

7. Attention is being given to both principles and/or process as the necessary basis of curriculum.

8. An interdisciplinary emphasis in curriculum is growing.

9. Subject matter is being restructured.

10. National curriculum patterns in math, science, and social studies are developing.

11. Individual curriculum programming is increasing.

12. Educational technology and continuous pupil progress curricula are altering elementary and secondary curriculums.

13. Hardware and software companies are merging.

14. More emphasis is being placed upon work done in public schools with children rather than in University lecture classes.

15. There is an increase in staff members of a school system assigned to curriculum planning and supervision.

16. More supervisors and administrators are required to take substantial work in the area of curriculum.

17. A variety of experimental programs are being established for preparing teachers and administrators for work in ghetto and inner city schools.

18. Teachers are becoming more specialized.

Summary

The Survey of Curriculum Offerings in 33 teacher education institutions indicates that more courses are being identified and offered as curriculum courses. Approximately half of the curriculum courses may be identified as general curriculum. The major aspects of curriculum content in courses are about the same in 1969 as they were in 1965. Approximately half the courses explore bases for curriculum content and study curriculum theory, principles and curriculum plans of organization. Three-fourths of the courses examine trends and issues which influence curriculum. There is a significant increase in the use of

current periodicals as a major source for content. Curriculum and method are taught in the same course in half of the courses. Four-fifths of the curriculum courses are open to teachers with one-fifth open only to administrators, curriculum directors and supervisors. Two-thirds of the institutions have made change in curriculum offerings within the last five years. A wide variety of trends are emerging which seem to influence the curriculum.

In conclusion, it is increasingly more difficult to identify any body of curriculum content to which every student of curriculum should be exposed. The generally accepted areas (or the identifying topics of history, bases, theory, principles, plans of organization) remain about the same. What is changing is the **process** and terminology. It would appear that the process is becoming content for curriculum learnings (courses and other appropriate experiences). Examining trends and issues, analyzing curriculum research studies, designing research to determine changing needs of school curriculum, and guiding students in evaluating public school curriculum are being given more emphasis. These concepts are supported both in what the respondents checked as being included in the present courses and in what they indicated are the trends influencing curriculum today.

Editor's Note: In addition to the above paper, Professor Wootton has written a case history describing the emergence ever the last ten years of the Department of Curriculum and Supervision, College of Education, The University of Georgia. Persons interested in the process of developing course offerings and expanding the programs and faculty in curriculum at Georgia may write Professor Wootton for this paper.

TECHNOLOGICAL APPLICATIONS TO BUILDING CURRICULUM IN THE FIELD OF CURRICULUM

Communicating Curriculum: An Analysis of Current Texts*

I

"Curriculum requires that choices be made," and an attempt to analyze current texts on curriculum highlight this succinctly stated but potentially encompassing statement about the "heart of the curriculum problem."

If one were to look for a leit motif for selection, it might well be that of the recurring theme of relevance. (Is this what is meant by the term "valid content"?) The present pressing demands on educators mandate the need for the organization, development and attendant research directed towards a curriculum that will functually link extrinsic curricula to the basic intrinsic concerns, feelings and needs of those it would serve. Such a job is not only challenging, but demanding in that the assistance from professionals who write texts must be addressed to concerns other than those frequently rehashed from book to book. What the challenge calls for is a creative approach to dealing with the several aspects of curriculum theory, curriculum development, curriculum organization, and curriculum decision-making. The demand calls for an even more creative approach to implementation of such creative products than the burgeoning field of electronics has already made possible. Only thus can the theme of relevance or validity be fully realized.

Before we examine the texts and show how they echo the confusions of the kinds of course offerings in curriculum so accurately reported in the preceding paper by Professor Wootton, let us look for a moment at why relevance or validity has been selected as a major theme. A model developed by Fantini and Weinstein (for the purpose of developing more relevant curriculums for disadvantaged area schools) may be useful to support this selection of motif and to provide a means for those who must choose texts for specific curriculum courses.

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TECHNOLOGICAL APPLICATIONS TO BUILDING CURRICULUM IN THE FIELD OF CURRICULUM

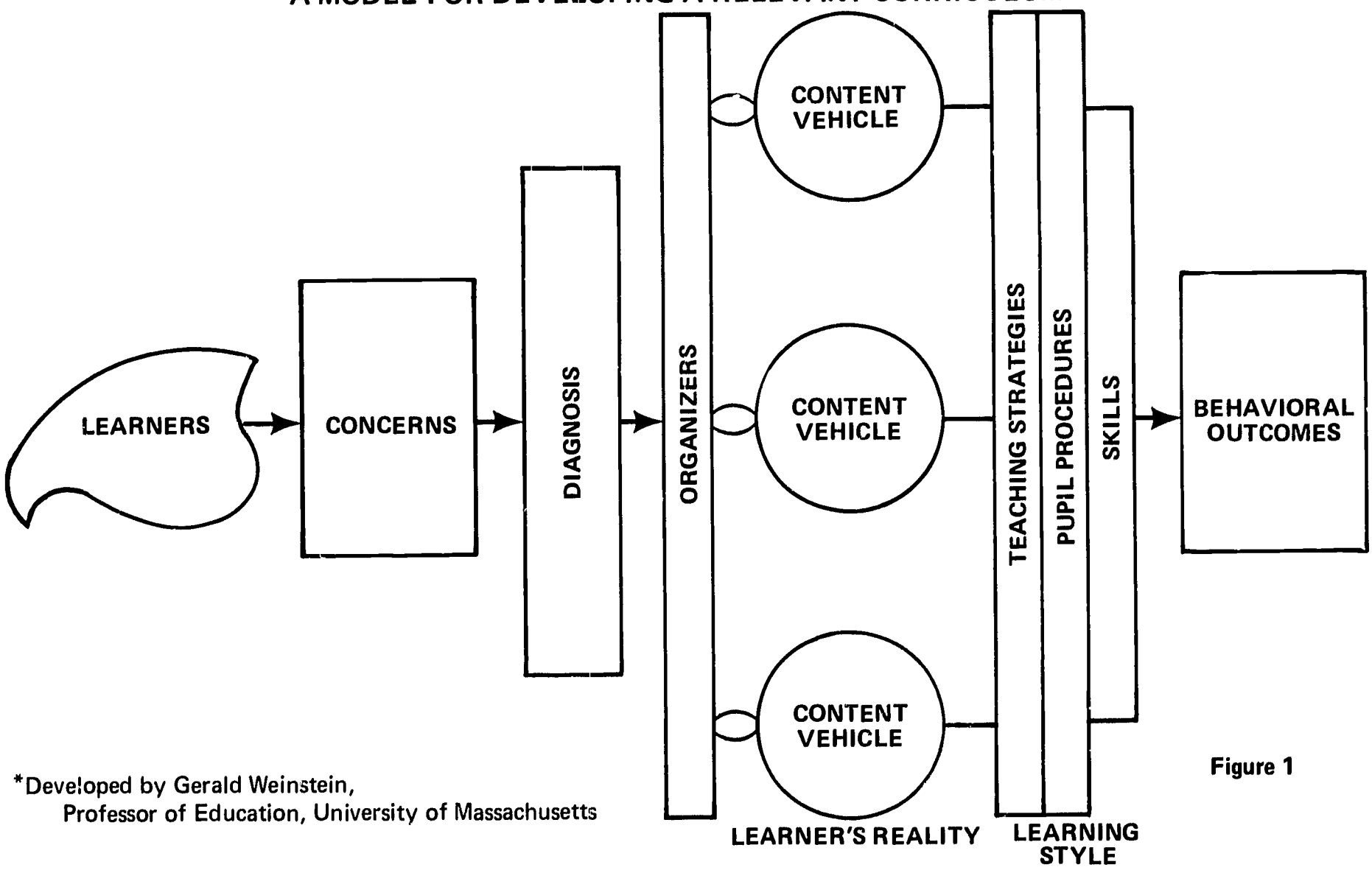
In almost every text on curriculum, the point is loudly and sometimes eloquently made that the curriculum designer must consider the consumer of the educational process. This is represented by the learner box in the model (Figure 1). In the texts this means that sections are devoted to all of the information we can gather from psychology about growth and development and the learning process; to all that we can gather from the social-anthropologist about the society and culture from which the learner comes; to all that we can garner from the economist about the special nature of the affluent, the less affluent, and the poor or economically disadvantaged populations. Such information certainly assists the curriculum theorist and the curriculum developer in some of the choices they must make.

The model, however, allows us to focus on several other matters. If we were to look through the texts examined, we would find that in most cases the immediate shift focuses on the learner's reality and the different learning styles — those boxes in the model that deal with the structure of the disciplines (in most cases the traditional disciplines), the vehicles appropriate for presenting the concepts from these disciplines to the learner, the strategies of teachers which demand concomitant procedures on the part of the learner, the skills (already learned and those to be newly learned) the need to operate at given levels in the school social system, to achieve the outcomes desired by the organization from the education process administered.

What seems missing is the connection between the learner as a human being — with concerns and a content of his own that he brings to the social system of school. These concerns and this content are not reflected in the usual list of cognitive behaviorial outcomes of the educational process. Especially in a time when the community from which the student comes is clamoring for some control over school matters do we need to connect student, community, and school to the educational process in a meaningful way. In his paper, Professor Mann sees this need reflected in both the student union movement and the community control movement. "A gap has developed between administration jargon about individual needs and community needs, on the one hand, and the individuals' and communities' perceptions of their own needs on the other."

In our model the attempt to close the gap is represented by the identification of the learners' concerns and the diagnosis of these in terms that affect curriculum choices, both in content and

A MODEL FOR DEVELOPING A RELEVANT CURRICULUM*



*Developed by Gerald Weinstein,
Professor of Education, University of Massachusetts

Figure 1

Julian Roberts

in design. Very few of the books on curriculum attempt to deal specifically with this lack of connection except in global terms or in theoretical terminology of the social and psychological sources of curriculum making. That connection, it seems to me, must somehow begin to deal with the concomitant development of the affective and cognitive domains of the learner. The nature of linguistic study today, which seems to frighten many experienced teachers, is a good example of how connections are never made between the learner and the cognitive aspects of the curriculum. Some of our current texts are beginning to take cognizance of this fact, some more creatively and aggressively than others. Gail Inlow calls it the emergent in curriculum. Lloyd Trump and Delmas Miller see it in terms of striving for the dispensibility of the teacher in the educational process. Others see it in terms of flexibility of school organization, allowing for less rigidity in the expected progress of any given learner and in the amounts and kinds of learning that may then take place. Fantini and Weinstein talk in **Making Urban Schools Work** of the three-tiered school, and Vernon Anderson, in asking curriculum improvers to look at their own behaviors and working processes, is in effect asking the curriculum decision makers to consider their decisions in more behavioral terms as the discovered behaviors may affect both the cognitive and affective development of the learners. It is the needed recognition of the affective domain, and implementation for its development in the curriculum that may hold the key to making curriculum more relevant to the learner. Perhaps we must examine the terms relevant and affect. The few that do (Inlow, Fantini and Weinstein, Taba, Vernon Anderson, and Sowards) are in the minority.

What the model indicates is that the content of the learner, if seriously listened to, may be diagnosed as three broad areas of concerns: self-concept, connectedness, and power. Each of these may be defined more specifically as a need to provide a curriculum in which growth in positive self-image, in feeling oneself a useful and meaningful part of the total school social system (especially in the so-called integrated school), and in the power to be able to help in the curriculum decision making process. This may be a way of realizing concomitant cognitive and affective growth in the individual. Curriculum choices must attend to both of these concepts of education if the whole child is to take an operational and functional as well as theoretical meaning.

Valid content for curriculum and courses in curriculum may then be viewed as a problem of allowing the affective dimension of learning to direct more of the cognitive dimensions of learning. By dealing with inner content, the teacher validates the child and it may be necessary to validate the child first in order to validate the curriculum designed for him.

II

An examination of a sampling of the latest texts on curriculum, to be functional, must result in some recommendations with regard to choice of text for specific curriculum courses. This task requires some criteria for making such recommendations. I have drawn upon statements from James Macdonald, in his article "A Curriculum Rationale," which is included in the readings compiled by Short and Marconnit. He makes two statements of principle pertinent to criteria for selection of texts. First he talks of "a concept of the person as the central value in curriculum," and this, of course, relates to Part I of my paper. The second posits what Macdonald calls the need to interpret and talk about the elements of curriculum with a moral discourse. Moral here refers to the way teachers and learners and all involved in the teaching-learning process interact, the dialogue, the promise for accomplishing learning tasks, the sense of forgiveness for yesterday's or even today's failure to progress, the sense of beauty, vitality and justice that should prevail during the educational experience. The focal point is on a relationship or connection with the learner.

To illustrate how the educational experience is immoral, and some specific implications of moral concepts for curriculum, Macdonald turns to "the ideational content and the persons involved in instructional contexts—or the basic cultural substance and the clients of the curriculum as they encounter the textbook . . ." He calls the textbook form a disservice to the young for it "coerces the students by the weight of its authoritative format and it adds greatly to the difficulty of internalizing personal meanings by its 'after the fact' logical ordering of experience and its segmented or restricted range of experimental data." Thus he claims the textbook to be "neither lifelike nor is it discipline-like." It does not reflect, in most cases, the commitment and vitality of the author or authors. "It is essentially immoral."

Unfortunately, a review of some thirty books on curriculum largely bear out this conclusion. There are, fortunately, several important exceptions, and I should like to mention those following this general discussion.

To one who has labored through an examination of curriculum textbooks, the importance of the information presented in Professor Wootton's survey of course offerings and content is clear. The texts in many cases reflect the conglomerate situation, he reports, though they do not necessarily reflect the nature of the client nor the level of educational experience. In other words, the texts, like the course labels and the lists of course content tend to be potpourris, something for everyone. In so doing, they either become weighty with authoritative awesomeness, or trivial in the way they attempt to do everything, including getting in on the latest fad either in method, organization, or new vocabulary. They also provide needed information, sometimes overburdeningly so, but rarely with any sense of the writers' own convictions and fervor.

Curriculum Theory and Development Courses

Broudy, Smith, and Burnett in **Democracy and Excellence in American Secondary Education** share in common with King and Brownell in **The Curriculum and the Disciplines of Knowledge,** the basic goal of intellectual development. King and Brownell (pp. 81-95) replace fact by fact study of the disciplines with the conceptual approach that emphasizes the structure of the disciplines. If the learner is seen as one who is to be submitted to an encounter with ideas as the major goal of education, these writers state their cases for the intellect as the prime claim on the curriculum with deep conviction. Both books do promote a commitment by their authors to a basic theory and philosophy, and both are extremely well-written. Broudy, **et al,** add the concept of the non-graded high school and suggest that this flexible organization allows each intellect to develop at its own rate and full potential. Their suggestion of the use of the molar problem is their way of insuring the development of problem-solving techniques.

Macdonald and Leeper in **Language and Meaning,** are committed to the discovery of felt meaning as well as to intellectual learning, and stress the need to develop positive self-concept for teachers and learners (p. 51). Macdonald, Anderson, and May, in **Strategies of Curriculum Development,** present a high-level consideration of avenues for growth and development in the field of curriculum, and excite the reader with their method of curricu-

lum inquiry via the analysis of classroom episodes. Macdonald in "A Curriculum Rationale," already cited from Short and Marconnit, sheds light on what a moral basis for education might provide in an age where structural underpinnings seems to be falling apart.

Neagley and Evans in **Handbook for Effective Curriculum Development,** present issues and recommendations in each chapter, but their picture of the school of 1980 is presented so unimaginatively, that if their predictions are to come true, we may be in worse trouble in 1980 than we are now.

Tuckman and O'Brian, in **Preparing to Teach the Disadvantaged,** although concerned with that special group of learners, see the need to develop individual talents of the learner in terms of re-looking at the vocational instruction and development offered in the curriculum to the many socio-economically disadvantaged in our school population.

There are others who cover these same areas, but I will delay my remarks on Taba, Trump, Inlow, Fantini and Weinstein, Sowards, and Short and Marconnit until the final section.

General Curriculum Courses

Gwynn and Chase, in **Curriculum Principles and Social Trends** (4th ed.), present a meaty text covering everything, but they do begin to sense (not fervently) a need to consider community approaches, self-image of the learners and the need for studying change processes as important and significant aspects of curriculum trends. The questions raised at the end of the book would have made or yielded an exciting presentation if they had addressed the entire fourth edition solely to an exploration of and suggested solutions to the issues these questions pose.

Hass and Wiles in **Readings in Curriculum,** like Gwynn and Chase, have written a text for a broadly inclusive course on all phases of curriculum with no real commitment apparent to the reader.

Michaelis, Grossman, and Scott present a solid first level course in **New Designs for Elementary School Curriculum,** though even an introduction to or a foundations course in curriculum might be called upon to present a more stimulating juxta-position

of varieties of concepts of how elementary schools can meet the criteria that can be derived from considerations of the model presented in section I of this paper.

Oliver, in **Curriculum Improvement,** presents a Cook's tour and guide to problems, procedures and principles. Yet even as he raises certain important issues, there seems to be no statement of personal commitment. Varieties of choices are offered, but today's educator and student, the clients of texts, want to interact with the person behind the intellectual statement of a choice. The nearest we come to a statement of position is when Oliver talks about accenting the positive, and stresses the basic problem of getting pupils to change. He suggests that superintendent should provide special funds to help school personnel initiate proposals for change and improvement, and this is not unlike the practice being used by Mark Shedd, the superintendent of schools in Philadelphia, who has already put this proposal into action. Oliver makes reference to Bennis, Benne and Chin, **The Planning of Change,** but he fails to capitalize on this important issue, largely because the text tries to accomplish a mammoth task.

Ragan, in **Modern Elementary Curriculum** (3rd ed.) has written a solid text for a general course. The two elements of dynamic interest are the techniques of the photo comments used in each chapter, and the excellent bibliography of readings and films available. Again, the prospect of the new school of the future seems unimaginative and not deeply in touch with the fiery issues of our time.

Saylor and Alexander, in the revised **Curriculum Planning for Modern Schools,** have probably written the best cook-book for curriculum planners. They give broad overviews, up-to-the-minute language and models that seem to suggest new insights into curriculum planning. Their special compendium feature is a set of annotated sources that will save many trips to the library. They are committed to providing a school experience "contrived to provide maximum growth and development of pupils in a socially accepted and approved manner" (p. 38). This is a book to be read after one has sorted out his own creative approach to curriculum design so that he may avoid old errors and look for new ways to become creative change agents the authors seem to desire.

Smith, Stanley, and Shores' **Fundamentals of Curriculum Development** is, perhaps, the most popular text in general curriculum courses. It stands as a kind of monumental presentation committed to the organization of curriculum around critical social issues.

Van Til, Vars, and Lounsbury, in **Modern Education for the Junior High School Years,** give a good introductory level course on the development of the junior high school movement, and commit themselves to a full explication of the core curriculum for this level of education.

Alexander, **et al,** in **The Emergent Middle School,** introduces the concept of the middle school, stressing personal development, skills for continued learning, and additional attainment of organized knowledge as the basis for curriculum design for the middle school. The book represents a typical example of the failure of a text to answer a need not only to explicate this new movement in school organization, but to provide leadership of a creative sort in suggesting ways in which the organization could be justified by highly individualized approaches to curriculum choice, development, and design. No real excitement is generated in what could emerge in establishing the middle school complex.

Finally, Tanner, in **Schools for Youth — Change and Challenge in Secondary Education,** presents a comprehensive exploration of the many facets of the secondary school. He calls for a balanced curriculum, and then presents major types of curricula in current operation, emphasizing several experimental programs.

Curriculum Change

The group of books briefly mentioned herein all deal with aspects of how change is effected in curriculum. Although this section is closely related to the concepts set forth in part I of this paper, the problem of effecting change in a school system, particularly curriculum change, has always been a persistent one. The following are some texts that deal in whole or in part with specifics relating to change.

Conner and Ellena, in their **Curriculum Handbook for School Administrators,** deal with the problem of change in the latter section of their book, (pp. 311-322). Although processes of change are outlined, and roles of personnel spelled out, there seems to be no role for student participation. The book itself is like one of the often discarded curriculum guides which really

could be helpful. However, it is a fervorless performance that would seem not to have any impact on those seeking to support or to risk change.

Doll's **Curriculum Improvement: Decision-Making Process,** published in 1964, is very committed to the processes involved in decision-making, and seeks new ways to effect change impact. He sees the learner as the clientele, and they, therefore, must be considered if change or decision-making is to be significant.

Goodlad's **School, Curriculum, and the Individual,** sees the learner as a data source for curriculum choice, but does not seek any role for him on the decision-making team. In both this book, and in several others, Goodlad does stress the need for individualizing instruction.

Schmidt and Buchanan wrote **Techniques that Produce Teamwork** in 1955. Both are products of National Training Laboratories, and their work still has import to the whole notion of how organizations can help produce meaningful and lasting change through the development of group processes for decision-making. The book contains a sound and useful methodology for making the school a collaborative rather than a competitive social system.

Verduin's **Cooperative Curriculum Improvement** describes and shares the experience of a cooperative approach to curriculum improvement. He stresses the need for teachers to "Participate in investigating, testing, and proposing course change so that he will understand and use appropriate changes in the curricula, with greater efficiency" (p. 122).

Kimball Wiles, although mainly concerned with the high school curriculum, in **The Changing Curriculum of the High Schools,** does make a plea for released time for teachers from classroom or other duties, and/or additional pay if overtime is required (pp. 287-291), if teachers are expected to take a dominant role in decision-making and change.

Anderson's **Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Improvement** could have been listed in several categories. He presents good coverage of procedures to be used in curriculum improvement. His discussion of approaches to pupils' various learning levels and treatment of creative research in curriculum development add to the value of the book. There is an excellent

bibliography, but more than that, this book was included in this section for the heavy emphasis and commitment to group processes in teaching, learning, and curriculum improvement.

Making Curriculum Relevant

Were it not for the following six selections, the attempts of current texts to communicate about curriculum or to add significantly to the matter of relevance or validity in curriculum content would be disheartening. Hilda Taba's **Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice** and her **Teacher Handbook for Contra Costa Social Studies** written with James L. Hills are tremendous contributions to providing a conceptual framework for curriculum development. Early in the first book, she calls for the curriculum pattern-makers to add to their job the role of translator "of ideas and facts from the behavioral sciences into their educational practices, the conception of educational tasks, and the ideas about the curriculum and instruction. There should be a constant flow of translated findings from research in the behavioral sciences into a body of ideas and information accessible to those who teach and think about teaching." The Contra Costa Handbook is an example of just how such a flow is translated into the design of a social studies curriculum. She sees curriculum as essentially a system of teaching somebody something by some process, and that such a system must consist of objectives to be attained, selection and organization of content, selection and organization of learning experiences to be provided, and the formulation and organization of the teaching strategies to be employed.

Taba's basic emphasis is upon establishing cognitive structures for learning, and although she mentions the need for affective growth, she does not stress this as a neglected need as do Fantini and Weinstein. In their two books, **The Disadvantaged: A Challenge to Education,** and the shorter work, **Making Urban Schools Work,** we not only get a highly committed set of writers who expand our notions of the special needs of the disadvantaged, but their notion of the need to have affective growth support cognitive development for all learners is paramount to their commitment. With respect to the Urban school, they call for the creative three-tiered school: Tier 1 relates to skills and knowledge development; Tier 2 relates to the identification and development of personal talents of the learners; and Tier 3 relates to social action which is defined as the development of and exploration of self and others.

Gail Inlow, in **The Emergent in Curriculum,** sees the need for attending to affective development through what he calls the mental health emphasis which he feels will bring an optimum development of both and affective and cognitive domains. He no longer trusts the development of the behavior of the individual to the academic disciplines alone. Rather he feels that the disciplines must be supplemented by a more direct approach via the "evolving theory of the mental-health environment." Inlow believes that his theory commits teachers and administrators to address themselves to such outcomes as self-acceptance, self-understanding and altruism.

Sowards and Scobey, in **The Changing Curriculum and the Elementary School,** stress the importance of the self-concept of the teacher and the effect that self-concept has on the learner.

Trump and Miller, in **Secondary School Curriculum Improvement Proposals and Procedures,** suggest that the ultimately successful curriculum will lead to the dispensibility of the teacher.

III

What one must conclude from the texts examined and their attempts to communicate curriculum may be summed up in seven points.

Texts which will include valid content for curriculum courses must:

1. provide theoretical and research findings relative to the nature of and structure of various content disciplines.

2. indicate the relation between content or concept organizers and the school function.

3. indicate the relation between school organization, as Goodlad clarifies it in terms of vertical and horizontal organizations, and the appropriate curriculum patterns and choices to be made. Here the notion of flexibility is essential.

4. provide problem-solving techniques that allow for identification of problems, and explore and extend the kinds of possible changes one might seek in solving the identified problem.

5. develop a conceptual theory to provide a framework for curriculum development and decision-making.

6. consider the data sources of society, learning theory, subject matter, and the content the learner brings with him.

7. recognize the need to train and retrain teachers to meet the demands of today's clientele, and to help various organizations, local, state, and federal see how they can serve this clientele best.

In choosing a text to provide valid or relevant course content, one might resort to the model presented in part I, or to any model that contains the elements inherent in that model. Unfortunately, a lot of spade work will have to be done, for most texts are not really seeking to help us see our problems in a new way, or to develop a variety of strategies for exploring them. Most deal piece-meal with many things, but without a sense of commitment. The saving grace of Short and Marconnit's textbook, **Contemporary Thought on Public School Curriculum,** is that it follows the trend to do away with textbooks as such by compiling readings from many sources and on the many aspects of curriculum by writers whose selections present an opportunity for a reader to interact with men and women of conviction. For the truth is that the multitude of the texts, in trying to be everything to everyone, are neither relevant nor helpful to the professional, and betray the users, the learners. Perhaps Macdonald was correct in his assumption that most textbooks are indeed immoral.

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